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ABSTRACT

Designed to accompany a series of 10 20-minute video programs, this teaching guide helps students to use geographical principles and concepts in order to better understand major historical development. The series uses the five basic geographic themes to enhance student understanding of significant events in U.S. history: location, place, human/environment relationships, movement, and regions. The 10 programs in the series are: (1) North vs. South in the Founding of the U.S.A., 1787-1796; (2) Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana, 1801-1813; (3) Civil War and Social Change in Georgia, 1860-1870; (4) Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains, 1865-1890; (5) An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh, 1865-1900; (6) Americans Build the Panama Canal, 1901-1914; (7) A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience, 1850-1990; (8) Moving North to Chicago, 1900-1945; (9) New Deal for the Dust Bowl, 1931-1945; and (10) The Origin and Development of NATO, 1945-1991. This guide includes materials for teachers to help them utilize the videos in their classrooms. The discussion of each program in this guide features the following sections: curriculum connection, objectives, geographic theme, program summary, before the program, during the program, after the program, follow-up activities, and suggested readings. Handouts and documents accompany each program. (DB)

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GEOGRAPHY IN U.S. HISTORY

Teacher's Guide

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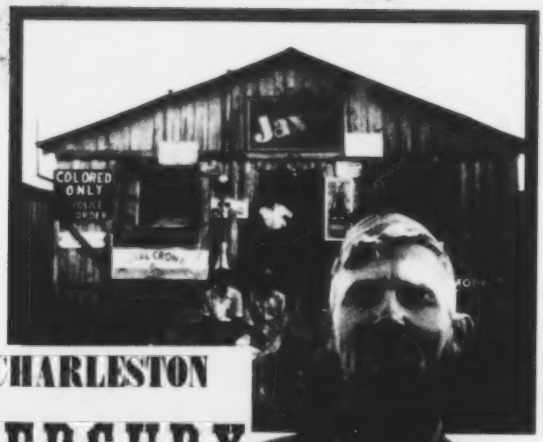

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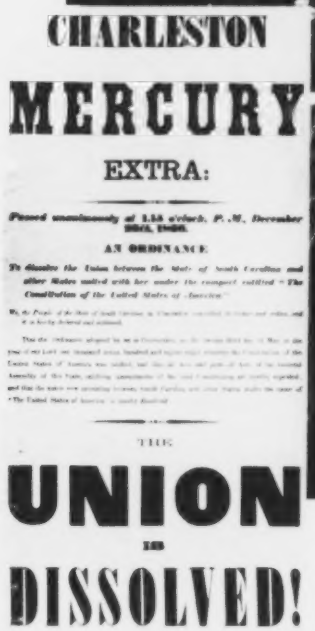
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Passed unanimously at 1.15 o'clock, P. M., December 20th, 1860.

AN ORDINANCE

To dissolve the Union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her under the compact entitled "The Constitution of the United States of America."

We, the People of the State of South Carolina, in Convention assembled, do ordain and declare it is hereby ordained and declared,

That the Ordinance adopted by us on the [illegible] day of May in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States of America was ratified, and also all laws and parts of laws of the General Assembly of this State, ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed, and that the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States under the name of "The United States of America" is hereby dissolved.

THE
UNION
IS
DISSOLVED!

WIDOW AND SISTER OF D
MAN BEATEN BY COP
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EKS TO JAIL DR. NORTHCROSS
PLEADS FOR NEW TRIAL
MRS. HOLLOWAY WEDS
ROBERT BALL, GOLFER
Wife Brings Doctor to Court Again; Wants Prison Sentence
BURNS TO DEATH IN HOT VAT
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A Teacher's Guide for

GEOGRAPHY IN U.S. HISTORY

A series of ten 20-minute video programs
for secondary school U.S. history students

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Introduction

Goals of the Series

Geography in U.S. History aims to contribute substantially to education for citizenship in this society through consideration of the interrelated content of history and geography. Geographic learning provides perspectives, information, concepts, and skills essential to viewing and understanding historical events and developments. Geographic learning therefore is vital to the sound teaching and learning of history in general and of United States history at the secondary school level in particular.

Educators in recent years have emphasized repeatedly that history and geography should have a central position in the social studies curriculum. The National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, for example, maintained in its report, *Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century*, that "geography and history, with their context of place and time, provide the indispensable framework for the study of societal institutions." Yet in most textbooks at the secondary school level, little attention is given to the effect of geography on U.S. history. As a result, opportunities rarely occur in classrooms to use the organizing principles of geography and the concepts and skills associated with them to view and understand major historical developments.

To help attain this objective, the Agency for Instructional Technology developed the ***Geography in U.S. History*** series of ten video programs based on these goals:

1. Acquainting secondary school students with fundamental geographic themes
2. Encouraging students to use these themes to illuminate and enhance their understanding of historical events
3. Helping students develop literacy in geography and history through comprehension and use of fundamental ideas in these two subjects
4. Aiding students' development of cognitive skills in geography involving the processing of information and the use of ideas to make and defend factual statements and value judgments about historical developments

Fundamental Themes in Geography

Geography in U.S. History uses five basic geographic themes to enhance student understanding of significant events in U.S. history: *location, place, human/environment relationships, movement,* and *regions*. These themes were presented as central to the teaching and learning of geography by the Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education in *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Each video program in the series spotlights one of these themes and includes the other themes to a lesser degree. Definitions of these themes and descriptions of their use are presented along with the lessons in this teacher's guide.

Program Content

The ten programs in ***Geography in U.S. History*** focus on events and developments of great significance in U.S. history, developments that transcend the particular regions or localities in which they occurred. Major topics covered are the foundation of the federal government, territorial expansion, consequences of the Civil War, frontier settlement and the displacement of native Americans, industrial development, the United States in world affairs, immigration policies, urbanization and the migration of African Americans within the United

States, and agricultural problems and government policies. Each program's content is presented in three segments as guided by three overriding purposes.

1. *Establishing a historical context and topics.* Each program begins with a brief, high-interest, contemporary opening that is then linked to the past, thus establishing the program's spatial and historical context and topics. The program on Jefferson's decision to purchase Louisiana, for example, opens with shots of busy New Orleans and its port, skyscrapers, and Superdome. This first segment always concludes with a question that structures the rest of the program. In the case of Louisiana, the narrator asks: "Why was the location of New Orleans so important to President Jefferson?"
2. *Relating a geographic theme to topics in U.S. history.* The principal geographic theme is introduced and connected to the events featured in the program. A person or group responding to challenges is featured in a chronologically ordered documentary presentation. Questions posed in the first segment are addressed. The Louisiana program, for example, covers the territory's geographic and historical importance from its founding through Jefferson's negotiations with Napoleon to purchase it, its subsequent exploration by Lewis and Clark, and its eventual division into states. This second segment aims to connect geography with history through a portrayal of events and to demonstrate how knowledge of geography contributes to historical understanding.
3. *Prompting postviewing activities.* Each program's story is brought to a thought-provoking climax in a final segment that reflects on the main ideas and makes connections between the program's content and subsequent events or concerns in U.S. history. The programs end with one or two questions to prompt postviewing discussion. The Louisiana program, for example, ends with the question, "What was so important about the Louisiana Purchase to the history of the United States?"

Each program provides opportunities for students to practice important cognitive skills: asking questions (programs 3 and 9), acquiring information (all programs), organizing and presenting information (programs 2 and 10), interpreting information (programs 1 and 7), formulating and testing generalizations (programs 4 and 6), and making evaluations (program 5). Each program is designed to increase students' understanding of specific aspects of historical literacy, including chronology, the complexities of cause and effect relationships, continuity and change, common memory, and historical empathy.

A chart showing the historical topic, geographic theme, and cognitive skill for each program follows this introduction.

Using the Videotapes and the Teacher's Guide

This series is designed for easy scheduling and flexible use in secondary school U.S. history courses. Although the programs constitute a chronological series, each one is self-contained and may be used independently. The curriculum connection section at the beginning of each lesson in this guide is meant to facilitate scheduling.

Ellen Gilberti, co-host of **Geography in U.S. History.**

Each 20-minute program with accompanying previewing and postviewing activities is designed to fit into one class meeting. Each lesson also includes a set of questions that are intended to form the basis for classroom discussion at the next class meeting. In addition, each lesson includes follow-up activities that may be assigned at the teacher's discretion.

This teacher's guide follows a standard format for each program. The curriculum connection paragraph first tells where the program's content fits into secondary school U.S. history courses and standard textbooks. It is followed by a list of student learning objectives, an explanation of the geographic theme featured in the program, and a brief summary of the program's content. Following this summary, suggestions are given for classroom activities before, during, and after the program viewing. Discussion questions are presented, followed by suggestions for follow-up activities and a list of suggested readings. Each lesson includes a timeline of the program's contents in the form of a sheet that may be duplicated and handed out to students. The optional follow-up activities, which involve students in analyzing and interpreting timelines, tables, graphs, and primary documents, also are presented in the form of handouts. In each lesson, it is suggested that teachers use wall maps or maps in standard secondary school textbooks to point out specific aspects of the topic. Teachers may also obtain outline maps from the National Council for Geographic Education Central Office, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA 15705-1087 or from their state Geographic Alliance.

Teachers should be sensitive to the use of terms in programs concerning African Americans. The term *black* rather than *Negro, colored, Afro-American,* or *African American* is generally used in these programs. As explained by Joseph E. Holloway in the introduction to *Africanisms in American Culture*, all of these terms have been used over the years to refer to U.S. citizens of African descent, and each has gained and lost preference among both blacks and whites. Although *African American*—which, as Holloway points out, "defines black people on the basis of identification with their historic place of origin"—appears to be the preferred term at this time, the term *black* has historic links to the civil rights and black power movements, which "helped elevate black status and pride throughout the world." Teachers who wish to further explore this subject—a history lesson in itself—are referred to Holloway's book.

References

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Holloway, Joseph E., editor. *Africanisms in American Culture*, pp. xviii-xx. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1990.

Joint Committee on Geographic Education. *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Geographers and National Council for Geographic Education, 1984.

Tony Evans, co-host of **Geography in U.S. History.**

PROGRAM OUTLINE

Program Title	Historical Topic	Geographic Theme	Cognitive Skill
North vs. South in the Founding of the USA 1787-1796	Establishing constitutional government; growth of political democracy	Regions	Interpreting geographic information
Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana 1801-1813	Territorial expansion/ westward movement	Location	Organizing and presenting information
Civil War and Social Change in Georgia 1860-1870	Consequences of the Civil War	Place	Asking questions
Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains 1865-1890	Settlement of the frontier	Human/ environment relationships	Formulating and testing generalizations
An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh 1865-1900	Industrial development	Place	Making evaluations
Americans Build the Panama Canal 1901-1914	United States in world affairs	Location	Formulating and testing generalizations
A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience 1850-1990	Immigration	Movement	Interpreting geographic information
Moving North to Chicago 1900-1945	Urbanization	Movement	Acquiring information
New Deal for the Dust Bowl 1931-1945	Impact of science and technology on society	Human/ environment relationships	Asking questions
The Origin and Development of NATO 1945-1991	United States in world affairs	Regions	Organizing and presenting information

PROGRAM 1

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

1787-1796

Curriculum Connection

This video program focuses on differences between the northern and southern regions of the United States that raised critical issues of national unity and stability before, during, and after the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Thus it fits into the unit on the founding of the nation, which is a prominent part of secondary school U.S. history courses. Its in-depth treatment of region-based political issues complements and extends the brief examination of this topic found in standard secondary school textbook chapters on the Constitutional Convention.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Identify and explain differences in the northern and southern regions of the United States that complicated the creation and establishment of a constitutional government for the new nation
2. Identify political issues at the Constitutional Convention that stemmed from regional differences
3. Explain how northern and southern leaders at the Constitutional Convention attempted to resolve regional differences through compromises over the importation of slaves, the regulation of trade, and representation in Congress

Geographic Theme

Regions: How They Form and Change

In this program, the geographic theme of regions is used to help students understand political differences between northern and southern states at the Constitutional Convention of 1787.

Key Ideas

1. Regions are a way to organize information.
2. A region has common characteristics.
3. Regions provide a context for studying events.

A region is a basic unit of geographic study. It refers to an area on the earth's surface that displays unity in terms of selected criteria. Regions define convenient and manageable units upon which to build our knowledge of the world. The U.S. Corn Belt, for example, is a region. Large farms with similar crops unite several midwestern states into a region where corn has been a mainstay.

There are numerous ways to define meaningful regions, depending on the issue or problem being considered. The process of regionalizing involves three steps: (1) selecting geographic facts as criteria, (2) mapping their distribution, and (3) making decisions regarding the delineation of a region based upon the distributions mapped.

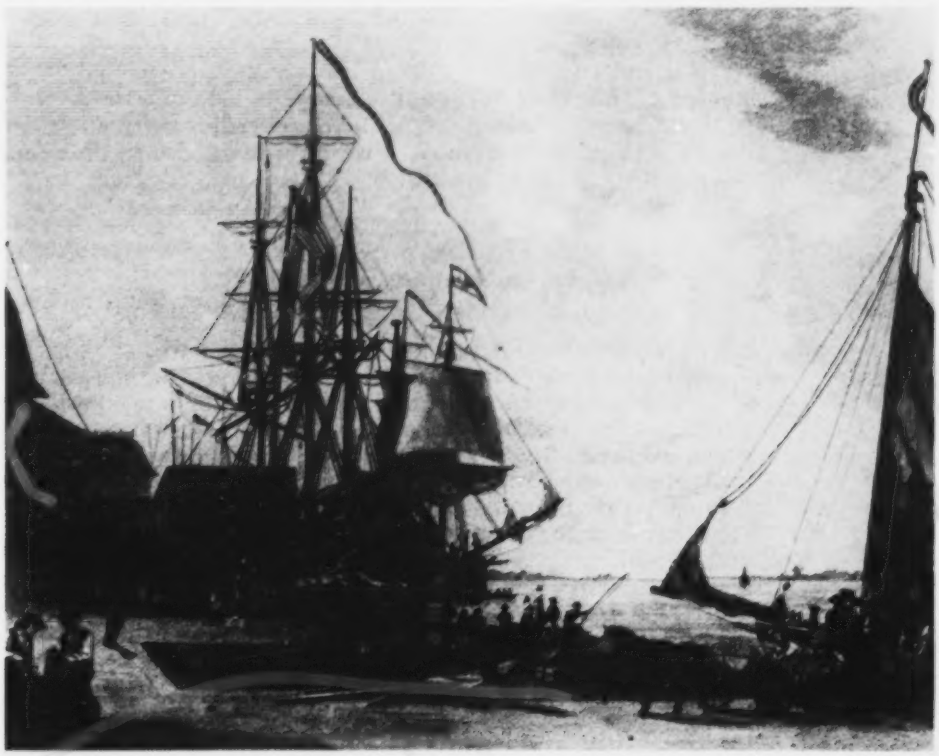
Thus a region is a convenient means for examining, defining, describing, explaining, and analyzing human and physical characteristics of an area. For example, many of the bitterest debates associated with the creation of the U.S. Constitution in 1787 can be understood within the context of the regional differences that existed in the country. These regions, North and South, were distinguished primarily in terms of whether or not they were economically dependent on the work of slaves.

Program Summary

In the hot summer of 1787, 55 delegates from 12 of the 13 states that had fought successfully for independence from Great Britain gathered in the Assembly Room of Independence Hall, Philadelphia. Their objective: to agree on a constitution that would make them truly the United States of America rather than a loose confederation. It took the delegates four months to hammer out the four-page U.S. Constitution. A major obstacle was differences between the states of two regions, North and South, especially over slavery. The South was economically dependent on the work of slaves. Crops grown in the South required a great deal of labor. The economy of the North, on the other hand, did not depend on slaves.

It was within the context of these regional differences that the debate took place. The two sides clashed first over representation in the proposed U.S. Congress. The question that divided them was whether slaves should be counted as part of the population. Northern debaters opposed such a count, for if it were approved the slaves would swell southern numbers in the House of Representatives, where each state's membership would be based on population. They argued that slaves were not free agents but were treated as property. The delegates finally compromised on a formula that made five slaves equal to three free people.

The delegates also fought over two trade issues: whether slave importation should be abolished and whether Congress should have the power to regulate trade. Three southern states that needed new slaves from Africa– North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia– fought fiercely for the right to import them and won an ally in a northern state, Connecticut, whose delegates argued that each state should be able to import whatever it pleased. A compromise was reached allowing states to continue bringing in slaves, but only until 1808.



New York Public Library

Philadelphia, a northern center of shipping and commerce, circa 1800.

That kept the adamant southern states on the side of union. The two sides also compromised over the second trade issue, giving Congress the power to regulate trade, as the North wanted, but agreeing that there would be no taxes on exports, as the South wanted. Southern states agreed to pay an import tax of up to $10 on each slave but were given the right to recapture fugitive slaves who had fled north.

The Constitution was signed on September 17, 1787. It was later ratified and put into operation in 1789. But the differences between North and South that had almost derailed the Constitutional Convention persisted and even grew stronger. The first U.S. president, George Washington, warned against these clashing interests in his Farewell Address of 1796.

Before the Program

- Read the following quotation to students:

  > [T]he great division of interests in the United States [in 1787] . . . did not lie between the large & small States. It lay between the Northern & Southern.
  >
  > James Madison, *Notes of Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787 reported by James Madison*

  Ask students to speculate on the meaning of this statement and how it may apply to developments in the United States during the founding period. Ask if they agree or disagree with it.

- Display to students an historical atlas or wall map that shows U.S. political boundaries in 1787. Ask students to identify states of the northern and southern regions at the time of the Constitutional Convention and to speculate about significant differences between the two regions based on informa-

Yale University Art Gallery

Slaves working on cotton plantation in the South, 18th century.

tion in the map. Tell students to use the map key (legend) to decode what the map says. Then ask them how these differences help explain Madison's statement.

- Distribute to students copies of the timeline, which appears as Handout A at the end of this lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video program they will view. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the impact of regional differences on decisions at the Constitutional Convention of 1787.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about three and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the question posed here by the host: "What differences between the two regions, North and South, threatened the Constitutional Convention?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their speculative responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "What compromises were made between North and South in the creation of the United States Constitution? And why did President Washington worry that those compromises might not last?" Encourage students to draw on information and examples from the program.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

1. Which states were in the northern region and which were in the southern region of the United States in 1787? *(North: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware; South: Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.)*
2. What were the key differences between the northern and southern regions that influenced decisions at the Constitutional Convention of 1787? *(Economics, climate, slavery.)*
3. How did these regional differences affect the convention's decisions in relation to importation of slaves, regulation of trade, and representation in Congress? You may wish to refer to Article I, Sections 2 and 9, and Article IV, Section 2, of the U.S. Constitution. *(Southern states insisted on the right to reclaim fugitive slaves and some insisted on continuing importation of slaves; North did not want slaves counted in population; North wanted Congress to regulate trade; South wanted no taxes on exports.)*
4. What did each region—northern and southern—gain from compromises at the Constitutional Convention over importation of slaves, regulation of trade, and representation in Congress? *(South gained continued importation of slaves, partial counting of slaves in population, the right to reclaim fugitive slaves, and no export taxes. North gained limitations on slave imports and on counting of slaves in population, regulation of trade by Congress.)* What did each region lose as a result of these compromise decisions? *(South lost slave imports after 1808, total counting of slaves; North lost on continued importation, partial counting of slaves, taxes on exports.)*
5. What were the strengths and weaknesses of the North-South compromises at the Constitutional Convention? *(Strengths: helped create a strong federation, bolstered South's economy; weaknesses: allowed continuation of slavery, sowed the seeds of further regional conflicts.)* Do you think the strengths outweighed the weaknesses? How? *(Answers will vary.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. These activities involve interpreting a table and a document.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *North in 1780 and 1790.* (2) *1780 and 1790: Philadelphia, New York, Charleston, Boston, Baltimore; Charleston and Baltimore in South, rest in North.* (3) *Charleston, Norfolk, Richmond, Albany, Baltimore; all in South except Albany.* (4) *Boston, Marblehead, Newburyport, Providence, and Salem; all in North.* (5) *Charleston, New York, Philadelphia, Richmond, Baltimore; all in South except New York and Philadelphia.* (6) *In general, North had more and larger cities than South but southern cities had more blacks and more slaves.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Importation of slaves.* (2) *South Carolina delegate wanted continued importation; Virginia delegate wanted it stopped by federal government; Connecticut delegate wanted the matter left to the states; Massachusetts delegate expressed opposition to importation; New Hampshire delegate wanted regulation by federal government.* (3) *Document reveals strong and clashing views on the two sides.* (4) *Importation of slaves was continued until 1808, a limited gain for states of the lower South.* (5) *Compromise permitted establishment of strong federation but sowed the seeds of further regional clashes.*

Suggested Reading

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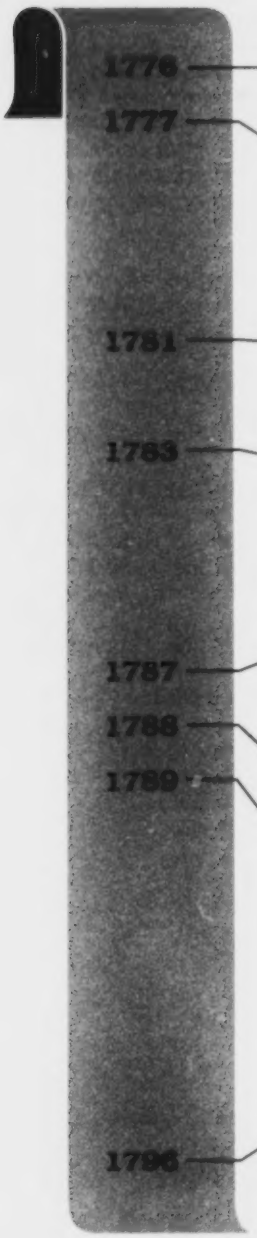
PROGRAM 1

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

HANDOUT A

Timeline



1776 — The 13 United States of America declare independence from Britain.

1777 — The Articles of Confederation, a frame of government for the United States of America, are written and submitted to the Continental Congress for ratification.

1781 — The Articles of Confederation are ratified by representatives in Congress of all 13 states.

1783 — The Treaty of Paris is signed, ending the American War of Independence with British recognition of the sovereignty of the United States.

1787 — The Constitutional Convention meets in Philadelphia to create a new and improved frame of government for the United States; compromises between leaders of states from two regions, North and South, are necessary to maintain national unity.

1788 — The United States Constitution is ratified.

1789 — The federal government of the United States is established under the Constitution; George Washington takes office as the first president.

1796 — In his Farewell Address, President Washington warns people of the United States against regional conflict and urges national unity.

PROGRAM 1

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Table

Urban Population of the United States in 1780 and 1790

City	1780	1790			
	Total	Total	% Black	% of Blacks Free	No. Black
Albany, N.Y.	3,050	3,494	17	4	597
Baltimore, Md.	8,000	13,503	12	21	1,578
Boston, Mass.	10,000	18,038	4	100	761
Charleston, S.C.	10,000	16,359	51	7	8,270
Marblehead, Mass.	4,142	5,661	2	100	87
New Haven, Conn.	3,350	4,487	4	64	196
New York, N.Y.	18,000	32,305	10	33	3,262
Newburyport, Mass.	3,080	4,817	1	100	67
Newport, R.I.	5,530	6,744	10	65	647
Norfolk, Va.	*	3,000	46	5	1,355
Philadelphia, Pa.	27,565	42,520	5	87	2,078
Portsmouth, N.H.	4,222	4,720	2	75	102
Providence, R.I.	4,310	6,371	7	90	474
Richmond, Va.	*	3,761	46	15	1,744
Salem, Mass.	4,008	7,917	3	100	260

*Not a city in 1780.

Data from Cappon, Lester J., *Atlas of Early American History: The Revolutionary Era, 1760-1790* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1976).

- To interpret information in a table, begin by determining *what the table is about.*
  1. *Inspect the title.* This allows you to quickly determine the subject of the table.
  2. *Examine the column (top) and row (side) headings.* This tells you exactly what information is displayed in the table and how it is organized.
  3. *Check the footnotes.* This tells you other useful information and may give the source of information in the table.

  What is the table shown above about?

- Next, determine *what the table says* by answering questions. Information needed to answer a question may be found where the appropriate column and row intersect. For example, the answer to "What was the population of Philadelphia in 1790?" may be found where the 1790 total population column meets the Philadelphia row. Now figure out what the table says by answering the following questions on the basis of data given in the table.

1. Which region of the country, North or South, had more cities in 1780? In 1790?

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

2. Which five cities had the largest populations in 1780? In 1790? In which region, North or South, were these five largest cities located?

3. Which five cities had the largest percentage of black people in 1790? In which region was each of these cities located?

4. Which five cities had the largest percentage of free blacks in 1790? In which region was each of these cities located?

5. Which five cities had the largest number of black people in 1790? In which region was each of these cities located?

- The final step in interpreting a table involves determining *what the table means*. This requires answering a general question about what the table says. Determine what this table means by answering the following question.

6. In general, what does the table reveal and suggest about North-South regional differences?

PROGRAM 1

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine the document taken from *Notes of Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787 reported by James Madison.* Then use information and ideas acquired from the document as evidence to support or justify your answers to these questions.

1. What major constitutional issue were the delegates discussing on August 21 and 22, 1787?

2. What positions on this issue were taken by delegates from South Carolina, Virginia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire?

3. What does this document reveal about regional differences at the Constitutional Convention?

4. How was this constitutional issue decided in 1787? (Refer to Article I, Section 9, of the U.S. Constitution.) What did the lower southern states gain– and fail to gain– from this decision?

5. Why was this issue decided as it was in 1787? What were the strengths and weaknesses of the decision?

PROGRAM 1

North vs. South in the Founding of the USA

DOCUMENT

Dialogue at the Constitutional Convention, 1787

Tuesday August 21, in convention

. . . Mr. L. MARTIN [Maryland] proposed . . . [either] a prohibition or tax on the importation of slaves. In the first place, as five slaves are to be counted as 3 free men in the apportionment of Representatives; [the free importation of slaves] would leave an encouragement to this traffic. . . . [I]t was inconsistent with the principles of the revolution and dishonorable to the American character to have such a feature [importation of slaves] in the Constitution.

Mr. RUTLEDGE [South Carolina] . . . The true question at present is whether the Southern States shall or shall not be parties to the Union. If the Northern States consult their interest, they will not oppose the increase of Slaves which will increase the commodities of which they will become the carriers.

Mr. ELLSWORTH [Connecticut] . . . The morality or wisdom of slavery are considerations belonging to the States themselves. What enriches a part enriches the whole, and the States are the best judges of their particular interest. The old confederation had not meddled with this point, and he did not see any greater necessity for bringing it within the policy of the new one.

Mr. PINCKNEY. South Carolina can never receive the plan if it prohibits the slave trade. In every proposed extension of the powers of the Congress, that State has expressly & archfully excepted that of meddling with the importation of negroes. If the States be all left at liberty on this subject, S. Carolina may perhaps by degrees do of herself [prohibit the importation of slaves] what is wished, as Virginia & Maryland have already done.

Adjourned

Wednesday August 22, in convention

Mr. SHERMAN [Connecticut] . . . disapproved of the slave trade; yet as the States were now possessed of the right to import slaves, as the public good did not require it to be taken from them, & as it was expedient to have as few objections as possible to the proposed scheme of Government, he thought it best to leave the matter as we find it. He observed that the abolition of Slavery seemed to be going on in the U.S. & that the good sense of the several States would probably by degrees compleat it.

Col. MASON [Virginia] . . . Slavery discourages arts & manufactures. The poor despise labour when performed by slaves. . . . They produce the most pernicious effect on manners. Every master of slaves is born a petty tyrant. . . . He lamented that some of our Eastern brethren had from a lust of gain embarked in this nefarious traffic [importation of slaves]. As to the States being in possession of the Right to import [slaves], this was the case with many other rights, now to be properly given up. He held it essential in every point of view that the General Government should have power to prevent the increase of slavery.

Mr. ELLSWORTH . . . Let us not intermeddle. As population increases poor laborers will be so plenty as to render slaves useless. Slavery in time will not be a speck in our country. Provision is already made in Connecticut for abolishing it. And the abolition has already taken place in Massachusetts. . . .

Mr. PINCKNEY . . . If the Southern States were let alone they will probably of themselves stop importations [of slaves]. . . . An attempt to take away the right as proposed will produce serious objections to the Constitution which he wished to see adopted.

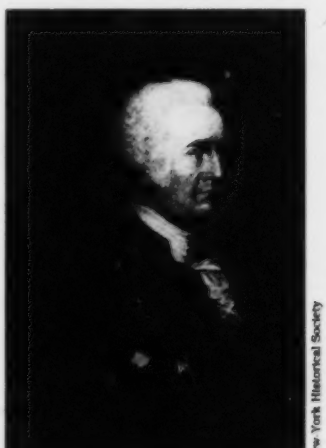
. . . Mr. DICKINSON [Delaware] considered it as inadmissible on every principle of honor & safety that the importation of slaves should be authorised to the States by the Constitution. . . . [T]his question ought to be left to the national Government not to the States particularly interested. . . .

. . . Mr. KING [Massachusetts] . . . If two States [South Carolina and Georgia] will not agree to the Constitution as stated on one side, he could affirm with equal belief on the other, that great & equal opposition would be experienced from the other States [to sanctioning the importation of slaves].

Mr. LANGDON [New Hampshire] was strenuous for giving the power to the General Government [to prohibit the slave trade]. He could not with a good conscience leave it with the States who could then go on with the traffic, without being restrained by the opinions here given that they will themselves cease to import slaves.

. . . Mr. RUTLEDGE. If the Convention thinks that North Carolina, South Carolina & Georgia will ever agree to the plan [Constitution], unless their right to import slaves be untouched, the expectation is vain. The people of those States will never be such fools as to give up so important an interest. . . .

. . . Mr. SHERMAN said it was better to let the Southern States import slaves than to part with them. . . . He was opposed to a tax on slaves imported as making the matter worse, because it implied they were property. . . .



New York Historical Society

John Rutledge of South Carolina

21

PROGRAM 2

Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana

1801-1813

Curriculum Connection

This video program focuses on President Jefferson's decision to acquire the port of New Orleans and the vast inland territory of Louisiana. The Louisiana Purchase is part of every curriculum guide and textbook designed for secondary school U.S. history courses. Treatment tends, however, to be very brief, providing only minimal information about the conditions and consequences of the acquisition. In this program, the subsequent acquisition of the Spanish territory of West Florida is related to the Louisiana Purchase as part of a comprehensive strategy to control the mouth of the Mississippi River.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Explain how the movement of people from the Atlantic Coast states to the Ohio River valley affected President Jefferson's decision to acquire territory at the mouth of the Mississippi River
2. Explain how President Jefferson's interest in the location of New Orleans led to the purchase of the Louisiana Territory
3. Relate the acquisition of West Florida by the United States to the Louisiana Purchase
4. Make judgments about the short-term and long-term benefits of the Louisiana Purchase for the United States

Geographic Theme

Location: Position on the Earth's Surface

In this program, the geographic theme of location is used to explain and evaluate the decision to acquire the port of New Orleans and the territories of Louisiana and West Florida.

Key Ideas

1. Location of places can be described using relative terms.
2. Relative location may reflect the perspective of an individual or group at a particular place or time.
3. People make decisions about locations.

Location refers to the position of people and places on the earth's surface. One way to describe position is in terms of relative location— the relationship of one place to another. Thus one way to describe New Orleans is in terms of its relative location with respect to the mouth of the Mississippi River on one hand and to the vast interior of North America on the other. Because of New Orleans' relationship to these places, Thomas Jefferson believed that the destiny of the United States was linked to getting control of New Orleans.

Program Summary

The Mississippi River port of New Orleans in Louisiana is now a major center for manufacturing and commerce, an all-American city. But it was founded by the French in 1718 and was controlled by Spain when the United States declared independence from Britain in 1776.

By 1802 New Orleans had become vital to U.S. interests because the many new settlers west of the Appalachian Mountains used the Mississippi as their main avenue of trade, sending their fur, grain, and livestock downstream to markets on the Atlantic coasts of North America and Europe. When President Thomas Jefferson learned that France, ruled by the powerful Napoleon, was regaining control of New Orleans, he sent James Monroe and Robert Livingston to negotiate with Napoleon to buy the port area. When they met with Napoleon's representative, Monroe and Livingston were surprised to learn that Napoleon wanted to sell them not only the port but also the whole Louisiana Territory– the entire interior of the continent, some 800,000 square miles– for 15 million dollars. They made the deal, and the territory became part of the United States on December 20, 1803, doubling its size. Jefferson then sent Captain Meriwether Lewis and Lieutenant William Clark to explore these vast lands, and their Corps of Discovery reached the Pacific Ocean in 1805. Eventually, 13 new states were formed on the land purchased from France.

To have real command of the Mississippi waterway, Jefferson knew that the United States must also secure the Spanish-owned area around Baton Rouge in what was called West Florida. The area was only lightly defended by the Spanish authorities, and Jefferson devised a secret plan to inspire American citizens living in West Florida to rebel against the Spanish. The plan proved successful, and the United States took possession of Baton Rouge in 1810 and the remainder of West Florida in 1813, securing the mouth of the Mississippi.

Before the Program

- Point to the port of New Orleans on a wall map or a map in a standard secondary school U.S. history textbook. Ask students what they know about the origins and development of the city. Ask them: Who founded it? When was it settled? When did it become part of the United States?

Tulane University Library

New Orleans in 1836, by G. W. Sully.

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- Write the following quotation on the chalkboard:

  There is on the globe one single spot, the possessor of which is [the] natural and habitual enemy of the United States. It is New Orleans. . . .
  Thomas Jefferson

  Then ask students to speculate on why Jefferson made this statement. Have them use information from the map to guide their thinking.
- Distribute to students copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical background for the video program they will view. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the importance to the United States in the early 1800s of the territory at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about two and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the question posed here by the host: "Why was the location of New Orleans so important to President Jefferson?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

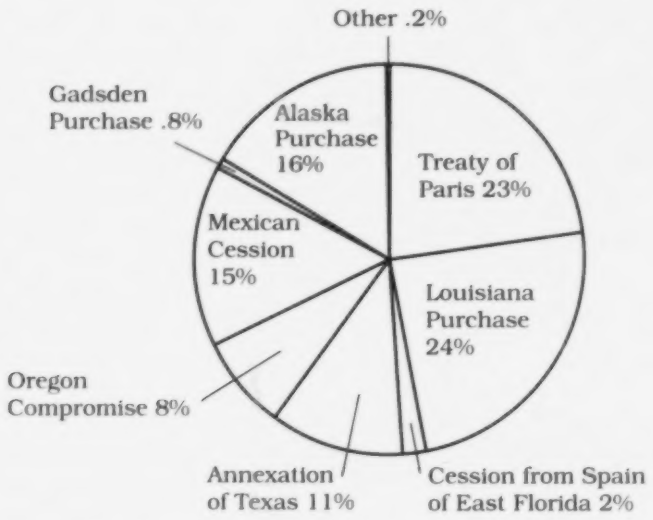
- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the question posed by the host at the end of the program: "What was so important about the Louisiana Purchase to the history of the United States?" Encourage students to draw upon information and examples from the program.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

  1. What did each of the following factors have to do with President Jefferson's interest in acquiring the city of New Orleans and the territory of West Florida?
     a. Movement of settlers into the Ohio River valley. *(Settlers used Mississippi River as main avenue of trade.)*
     b. Reacquisition of New Orleans by France. *(France was a strong military power and could control the port, thus blocking access from the interior to markets in North America and Europe.)*
     c. Threat of war in Europe. *(It interrupted Napoleon's plans for New Orleans.)*
  2. Why did Napoleon decide to sell Louisiana to the United States? *(He faced war with England and defeat in Sainte Domingue in the West Indies.)*
  3. How did the Louisiana Purchase influence the United States to acquire West Florida? *(U.S. also needed West Florida to gain real command of the Mississippi.)*
  4. How did the United States benefit from the Louisiana Purchase and the acquisition of West Florida? Assess both the short-term and long-range benefits. *(Mouth of Mississippi was made secure; U.S. territory, wealth, and resources greatly enlarged.)*
  5. In general, what do the events associated with the acquisition of Louisiana and West Florida indicate about the influence of the idea of location on decisions by President Jefferson? *(Strategic location of port of New Orleans was main factor in decisions.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. These activities involve constructing a pie chart and interpreting a document.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *1803.* (2) *874,240 square miles, or 24 percent.* (3) *77 percent.* (4) *One-third.* (5) *Most significant land acquisition in U.S. history.*



U.S. Land Acquisitions, 1783-1867

Answers to Handout C: (1) *France could cut U.S. off from markets.* (2) *Prime economic importance.* (3) *It was needed for control of Mississippi.* (4) *To help persuade France to cede New Orleans and the Floridas to U.S.* (5) *End of friendly relations with France.* (6) *Prime importance for growth and economic well-being.*

Suggested Reading

Garrett, Wilbur E., editor. *Historical Atlas of the United States*, pp. 92-101. Washington, D.C.: National Geographic Society, 1988.

Jackson, Donald. *Thomas Jefferson and the Stony Mountains: Exploring the West from Monticello.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1981.

Lavender, David. *The Way to the Western Sea: Lewis and Clark across the Continent.* New York: Harper & Row, 1988.

Malone, Dumas. *Jefferson the President, 1801-1805*, pp. 239-310. Boston: Little, Brown, 1970.

Philbrick, Francis S. *The Rise of the West, 1754-1830*, pp. 201-233. New York: Harper & Row, 1965.

Savage, Henry, Jr. *Discovering America, 1700-1875*, pp. 88-110. New York: Harper & Row, 1979.

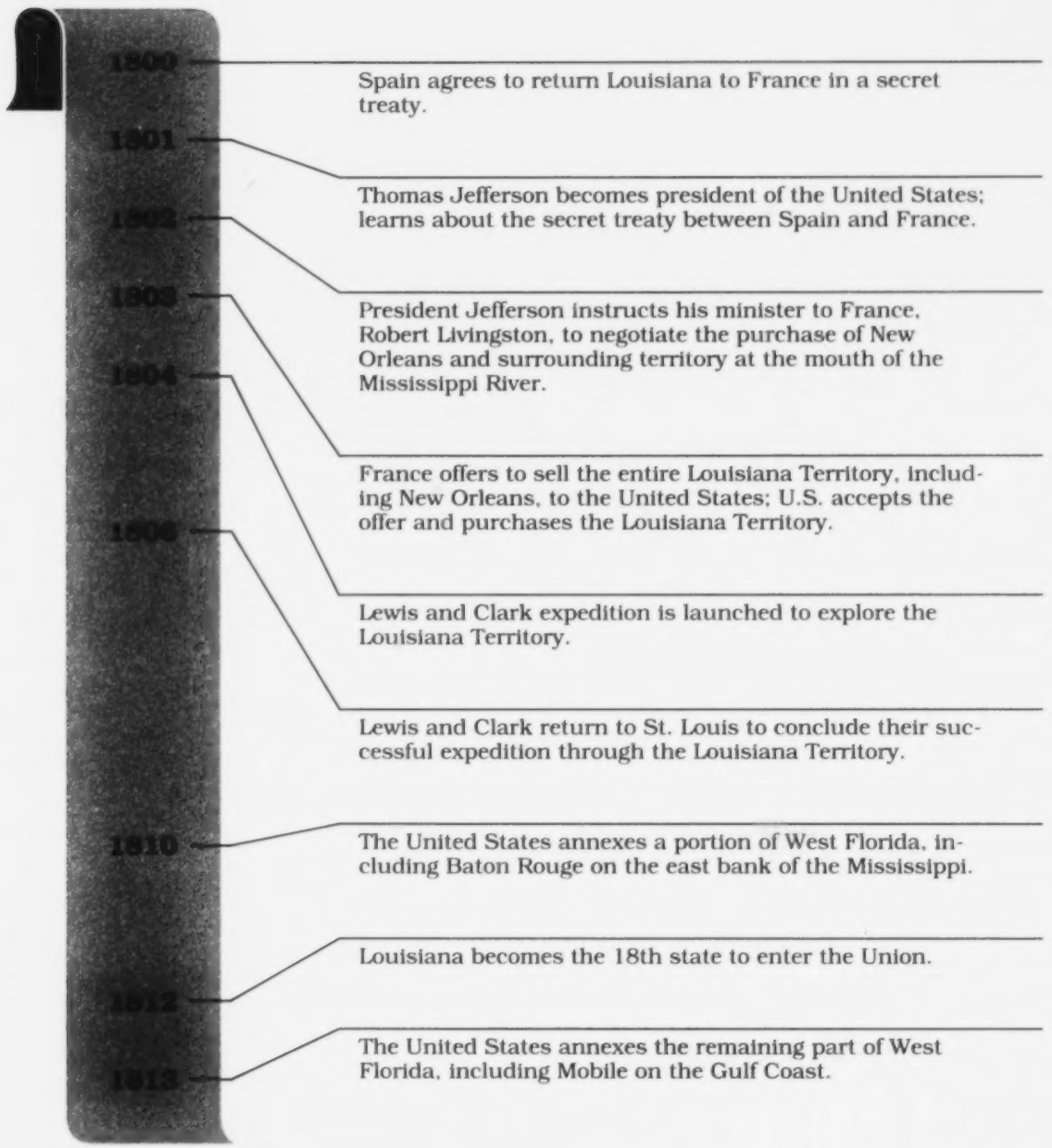
Tucker, Robert W., and David C. Hendrickson. *Empire of Liberty: The Statecraft of Thomas Jefferson.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1990.

PROGRAM 2

Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1800
Spain agrees to return Louisiana to France in a secret treaty.
1801
Thomas Jefferson becomes president of the United States; learns about the secret treaty between Spain and France.
1802
1803
President Jefferson instructs his minister to France, Robert Livingston, to negotiate the purchase of New Orleans and surrounding territory at the mouth of the Mississippi River.
1804
France offers to sell the entire Louisiana Territory, including New Orleans, to the United States; U.S. accepts the offer and purchases the Louisiana Territory.
1806
Lewis and Clark expedition is launched to explore the Louisiana Territory.
Lewis and Clark return to St. Louis to conclude their successful expedition through the Louisiana Territory.
1810
The United States annexes a portion of West Florida, including Baton Rouge on the east bank of the Mississippi.
Louisiana becomes the 18th state to enter the Union.
1812
The United States annexes the remaining part of West Florida, including Mobile on the Gulf Coast.
1813

PROGRAM 2

Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana

HANDOUT B

Constructing a Pie Chart

Acquisition of the Territory of the United States, 1783-1867

Year Acquired	Means of Acquisition	Total Area (square miles)	% of Total Land Area	Degrees of Circle
1783	Treaty of Paris	845,882	23	83
1803	Louisiana Purchase	874,240	24	86
1819	Cession from Spain of East Florida	72,101	2	7
1845	Annexation of Texas	389,166	11	39
1846	Oregon Compromise	286,541	8	29
1848	Mexican Cession	529,189	15	54
1853	Gadsden Purchase	29,670	00.8	3
1867	Alaska Purchase	586,400	16	58
Other		5,581	00.2	1
	TOTAL	3,618,770	100	360

Examine the table, which deals with the acquisition of the territory of the United States, especially for the period 1783-1867. Information in the table can be used to construct a pie chart, which shows how parts relate to a whole; these parts are usually expressed as percents of the whole.

Use the information in the table to construct a pie chart as follows.

- Draw a circle on a separate piece of paper.
- Plot the information. Use a protractor to create slices of the pie chart according to the percentages given. On the table, percentages have been converted to degrees for your convenience.

Now answer these questions about the data in the table and pie chart.

1. In what year did the United States acquire Louisiana?

2. To what extent did the purchase of Louisiana increase the territory of the United States? (Respond in terms of total area acquired and the proportion of the Louisiana Territory to the total area of the United States.)

3. How much territory (in percentage of total land area) did the United States acquire from 1803 through 1867?

4. What proportion of the total square miles acquired by the United States from 1803 through 1867 was acquired in the Louisiana Purchase?

5. What do these data suggest about the significance of the Louisiana Purchase in U.S. history?

PROGRAM 2

Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine the primary document, an excerpt from a letter from President Jefferson to Robert Livingston, the U.S. minister to France, concerning Jefferson's decision to acquire New Orleans from France. Then use information and ideas acquired from the document as evidence to support or justify your answers to these questions.

1. Why did Jefferson fear French control of New Orleans?

2. What does this document reveal about the importance of access to the port of New Orleans by people living in the Ohio River valley?

3. Why did Jefferson include the territory of "the Floridas" with New Orleans in his instructions?

4. What mission did Jefferson assign to Robert Livingston?

5. What consequences did Jefferson fear if Livingston failed in this mission?

6. In general, what does this document reveal about the importance of the location of New Orleans and the Floridas in Jefferson's thinking about the future of the United States?

PROGRAM 2

Jefferson Decides to Purchase Louisiana

DOCUMENT

Letter from President Thomas Jefferson to Robert R. Livingston
April 18, 1802

. . . The cession of Louisiana and the Floridas by Spain to France works most sorely on the U.S. . . . There is on the globe one single spot, the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy. It is New Orleans, through which the produce of three-eighths of our territory [the Ohio Valley] must pass to market, and from its fertility it will ere long yield more than half of our whole produce and contain more than half our inhabitants. France placing herself in that door assumes to us the attitude of defiance. Spain might have retained it quietly for years. Her pacific dispositions, her feeble state, would induce her to increase our facilities there, so that her possession of the place would be hardly felt by us, and it would not perhaps be very long before some circumstance might arise which might make the cession of it to us the price of something of more worth to her. Not so can it ever be in the hands of France. The impetuosity of her temper, the energy and restlessness of her character, placed in a point of eternal friction with us . . . render it impossible that France and the U.S. can continue long friends when they meet in so irritable a position. They as well as we must be blind if they do not see this; and we must be very improvident if we do not begin to make arrangements on that hypothesis. . . .

If France considers Louisiana . . . she might perhaps be willing to look about for arrangements which might reconcile it to our interests. If anything could do this it would be the ceding to us . . . of New Orleans and the Floridas. This would certainly in a great degree remove the causes of jarring and irritation between us, and perhaps for such a length of time as might produce other means of making the measure permanently conciliatory to our interests and friendships. . . . Still we should consider N. Orleans and the Floridas as equivalent for the risk of a quarrel with France. . . . I have no doubt you have urged these considerations on every proper occasion with the government [of France] where you are [in Paris]. . . . Every eye in the U.S. is now fixed on this affair of Louisiana. Perhaps nothing since the revolutionary war has produced more uneasy sensations through the body of the nation. Notwithstanding temporary bickerings have taken place with France, she has still a strong hold on the affections of our citizens generally. I have thought it not amiss, by way of supplement to the letters of the Secretary of State to write you this private one to impress you with the importance we affix to this transaction. . . . Accept assurances of my affectionate esteem and high consideration.

National Archives

Thomas Jefferson

PROGRAM 3

Civil War and Social Change in Georgia

1860-1870

Curriculum Connection

This video program shows in depth the impact of a cataclysmic event, the Civil War, on the characteristics of one place, Savannah, Georgia. Thus it fits into the unit on the Civil War and Reconstruction in secondary school U.S. history curriculum guides and textbooks, complementing and enriching treatments of the general effects of the war on the southern region of the United States.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Identify and describe key events of the Civil War that directly affected the human and natural characteristics of Georgia and Savannah
2. Compare the human and natural characteristics of Savannah before and after the Civil War to show how this cataclysmic event changed one place in the South
3. Assess the extent to which changes in Savannah associated with the Civil War were indicative of social and environmental changes in Georgia and other parts of the South

Geographic Theme

Place: Physical and Human Characteristics

This program uses the theme of place to examine the changes that occurred in one city as a result of the Civil War.

Key Ideas

1. Places have physical characteristics.
2. Places have human characteristics.
3. Places can be described in different ways.
4. The natural and human characteristics of places can change over time.
5. The natural and human characteristics of places help to identify and interpret the interactions that occur between people and environments.

All places on the earth have distinct tangible and intangible characteristics that give them identity and distinguish them from other places.

Physical characteristics of a place derive from the geological, hydrological, atmospheric, and biological processes that produce landforms, water bodies, climate, soils, natural vegetation, and animal life.

Human characteristics derive from people's ideas and actions; they shape the character of places, which vary in population composition, settlement patterns, architecture, and transportation and communication networks.

Places also are invested with *meanings*, which arise from human intellectual and emotional responses to places.

Program Summary

Before the Civil War, Georgia's port city of Savannah was a place of wealth and beauty. Located on the Savannah River a few miles from the Atlantic Ocean, this "Queen City of the South" was one of the busiest and richest seaports in

the United States. But the Civil War that began in 1861 brought great changes, not only to Savannah but also to the entire South.

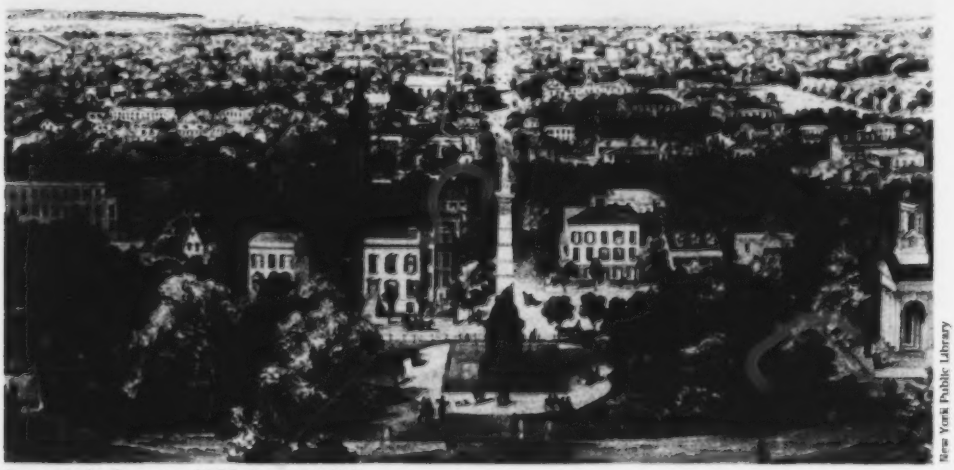
Savannah's wealth came from two things: cotton and slavery. Slaves who worked on the large cotton plantations made up nearly half of Savannah's population. And it was the issue of slavery that divided the North and South. Southerners opposed the 1860 election of President Abraham Lincoln, who was against the extension of slavery to new states in the West, and the southern states seceded from the Union, leading to the Civil War.

Northern ships blockaded southern ports and Union troops mined the Savannah River, forcing the port to close. Savannah's economy was devastated. At the battlefront the tide of war swung sharply in the North's favor. Union General William Tecumseh Sherman decided to break the southern Confederacy by marching from Chattanooga to Atlanta, capturing that city, then marching on to Savannah and the sea, smashing everything in his way. He and his 62,000 troops reached Savannah on December 22, 1864. The city was defeated and demoralized.

The Confederate soldiers who returned home to Savannah and other southern cities after the war ended in April 1865 found the places completely transformed. What was left of Savannah still stood overlooking the river, but the rich had become poor and the slaves were free. Some former slaves became landowners, while others became tenant farmers. But not until the civil rights movement a hundred years later did African Americans begin to win political and legal equality with whites.

Before the Program

- Point out the lineup of Union and Confederate states on a historical wall map or a map in a secondary school history textbook chapter on the Civil War. Then point to the state of Georgia. Tell students that geographic questions can help structure one's consideration of place.



New York Public Library

Savannah, Georgia, 1855, by J. W. Hill.

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The most basic geographic question is *"Where?"* Ask students where Savannah is on the map. Then tell them that Savannah was a busy and prosperous place, often called "the Queen City of the South," before the outbreak of the Civil War.

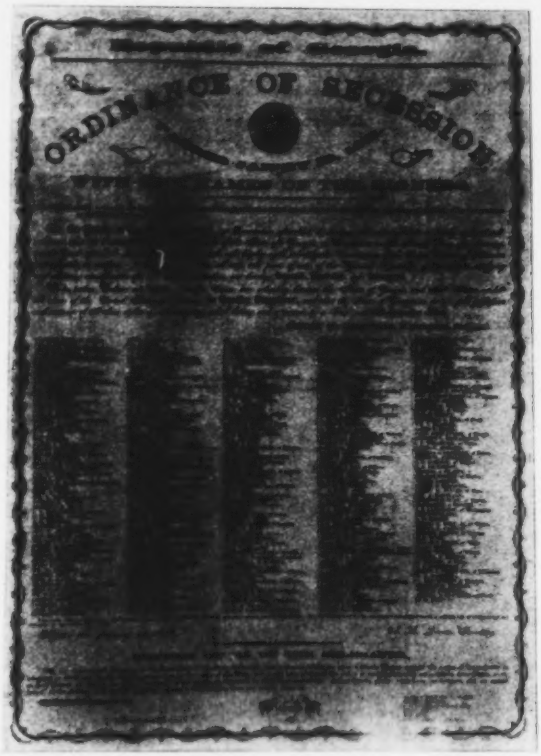
A second basic geographic question is *"Why there?"* Ask students to speculate on the question, "Why did an important commercial center develop there in Savannah?"

A third geographic question is *"What was it like there?"* Ask students to speculate on the question, "What was it like in Savannah after the Civil War?"

- Distribute to students copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video program they will see. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the impact of the Civil War on Georgia and its port city of Savannah.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about two minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the question posed here by the host: "How did the Civil War change the human and natural characteristics of Savannah?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their speculative responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)



Original broadside announcing the secession of Georgia.

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After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "What was Savannah like before the Civil War? And how did the war change the characteristics of this place?" Encourage students to draw upon information presented in the program.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

1. What did the following conditions have to do with the prominence and commercial prosperity of Savannah before the Civil War?
   a. The city's location on the Savannah River. *(Port accessible from Atlantic Ocean.)*
   b. The presence of rice and cotton plantations in the coastal area and farther inland. *(Crops exported through Savannah.)*
   c. Slave labor. *(Made plantations possible and successful.)*
2. How did the following events of the Civil War affect human and natural characteristics in Georgia and Savannah?
   a. Union blockade of the Confederate coastline. *(Savannah port shut down, exports stopped, prices shot up; Union strangled entire South.)*
   b. Battle of Atlanta. *(Destroyed Georgia's capital city; opened path to Savannah for Sherman's troops.)*
   c. General Sherman's march to the sea. *(Caused much devastation; freed slaves.)*
   d. General Sherman's occupation of Savannah. *(Death and destruction; defeat and demoralization.)*
   e. Surrender of Confederate forces at Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia. *(Whole social organization subverted.)*
3. How did the Civil War change the characteristics of Savannah in terms of the following categories?
   a. Commercial activity. *(In ruins.)*
   b. Status of African Americans. *(Slaves freed.)*
   c. Status of people such as members of the Jones family. *(Lost their plantations.)*
   d. The physical appearance of the city and surrounding area. *(Much destruction.)*
   e. The natural environment of the city and surrounding area. *(Remained the same.)*
4. Did the social and environmental changes in Savannah extend to Georgia and other parts of the South? *(Conditions were similar over much of the South.)*
5. Compare the differing views on these changes held by the Joneses and people like them, by former slaves of people like the Joneses, and by Union military leaders such as General Sherman. *(Joneses could not bear to stay in Savannah; slaves were freed but remained economically and socially constrained; Sherman was triumphant.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activites, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. These activities involve interpreting a timeline and a document.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *1860, 1861.* (2) *1865, 1868, 1870.* (3), (4), and (5) *Answers will vary.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Captured animals and goods fed Sherman's men and animals.* (2) *Sherman was disappointed that General Hardee escaped.* (3) *Sherman permitted enlistment of blacks in army, gave certain land rights to freedmen.* (4) *River was obstructed; Union took control of buildings and property; slaves were freed.*

Suggested Reading

Catton, Bruce. *The American Heritage Picture History of the Civil War.* New York: American Heritage/Bonanza, 1982.

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Lawrence, Alexander A. *A Present for Mr. Lincoln: The Story of Savannah from Secession to Sherman.* Macon, Ga.: Ardivan Press, 1961.

McPherson, James M. *Battle Cry of Freedom: The Era of the Civil War.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.

Miles, Jim. *Fields of Glory: A History and Tour Guide of the Atlanta Campaign.* Nashville, Tenn.: Rutledge Hill Press, 1989.

Miles, Jim. *To the Sea: A History and Tour Guide of Sherman's March.* Nashville, Tenn.: Rutledge Hill Press, 1989.

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PROGRAM 3

Civil War and Social Change in Georgia

HANDOUT A

Timeline

1860 — In December South Carolina becomes the first state to secede from the United States.

1861 — Ten additional states, including Georgia, secede; with South Carolina, they establish the Confederate States of America; a Civil War starts between the United States and the Confederate States.

1862 — The Union navy effectively blockades coastal areas of the Confederacy; with the fall of Fort Pulaski, the port of Savannah is sealed off from seaborne trade and supplies.

1863 — President Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation, which declares that all slaves in areas still in rebellion against the United States were "then, thenceforward, and forever free."

1864 — General William T. Sherman invades Georgia and captures Atlanta; in November he begins his march to Savannah, which falls to Union forces on December 22.

1865 — Civil War ends with defeat of the Confederate States; slavery is ended in the United States with ratification of the 13th Amendment to the Constitution.

1868 — The 14th Amendment to the Constitution is passed to protect citizenship rights of African Americans.

1870 — The 15th Amendment to the Constitution is passed to protect voting rights of African Americans.

PROGRAM 3

Civil War and Social Change in Georgia

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Timeline

Examine the timeline for this lesson (Handout A) and answer these questions about its data.

1. Which items in the timeline are associated with the causes of the Civil War?

2. Which items in the timeline are associated with the outcomes or consequences of the Civil War?

3. Which three items in the timeline do you believe are of greatest importance in U.S. history? Rank your selections in order of importance and explain your selections and rankings.

4. Which three events in U.S. history would you add to this timeline? Where would they go? Why would you add them?

5. Why did the timeline events of 1864 and 1868 have a major effect on the human characteristics of Georgia and the South?

PROGRAM 3

Civil War and Social Change in Georgia

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine this primary document, an excerpt from *Memoirs of General W. T. Sherman* (1875) about the general's occupation of Savannah. Then use information and ideas acquired from the document as evidence to support or justify your answers to these questions.

1. What were General Sherman's conclusions about the major achievements of his army in the march through Georgia to Savannah?

2. Did General Sherman have any regrets about the capture of Savannah?

3. What actions did General Sherman take to provide opportunities for black people in Savannah?

4. What does this document reveal about changes in Savannah brought about by the war?

PROGRAM 3

Civil War and Social Change in Georgia

DOCUMENT

General Sherman's Occupation of Savannah, Georgia December 21, 1864-January 21, 1865

. . . [T]he city of Savannah had been found evacuated on the morning of December 21st, and was then in our possession. General Hardee had crossed the Savannah River by a pontoon-bridge, carrying off his men and light artillery, blowing up his iron-clads and navy-yard, but leaving for us all the heavy guns, stores, cotton, railway cars, steamboats, and an immense amount of public and private property. . . .

General Slocum and Howard moved their headquarters at once into the city, leaving the bulk of their troops in camps outside. On the morning of December 22nd I followed with my own headquarters, and rode down Bull Street to the custom-house, from the roof of which we had an extensive view over the city, the river, and the vast extent of marsh and rice-fields on the South Carolina side. . . .

I was disappointed that Hardee had escaped with his army, but on the whole we had reason to be content with the substantial fruits of victory. The Savannah River was found to be badly obstructed by torpedoes, and by log piers stretched across the channel below the city. . . .

Here terminated the "March to the Sea." . . . The property captured consisted of horses and mules by the thousand, and of quantities of subsistence stores that aggregate very large, but may be measured with sufficient accuracy by assuming that sixty-five thousand men obtained abundant food for about forty days, and thirty-five thousand animals were fed for a like period, so as to reach Savannah in splendid flesh and condition.

• • •

The city of Savannah was an old place, and usually accounted a handsome one. Its houses were of brick or frame, with large yards, ornamented with shrubbery and flowers; its streets perfectly regular, crossing each other at right angles; and at many of the intersections were small enclosures in the nature of parks. . . .

Within an hour of taking up my quarters in Mr. Green's home, Mr. A. G. Browne . . . United States treasury agent for the Department of the South, made his appearance to claim possession, in the name of the Treasury Department, of all captured cotton, rice, buildings, etc. . . .

. . . I sat down and wrote on a slip of paper . . . to be left at the telegraph-office . . . for transmission, the following:

SAVANNAH, GEORGIA, December 22, 1864

To His Excellency President LINCOLN, Washington, D.C.

I beg to present you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition, also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General

• • •

It was estimated that there were about twenty thousand inhabitants in Savannah, all of whom had participated more or less in the war, and had no special claims to our favor, but I regarded the war as rapidly drawing to a close, and it was becoming a political question as to what was to be done with the people of the South, both white and black, when the war was actually over. . . .

On the 11th of January there arrived at Savannah . . . the Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War. . . .

Mr. Stanton stayed in Savannah several days, and seemed curious about matters and things in general. . . .

He talked to me a great deal about the negroes, the former slaves. . . .

. . . The negro question was beginning to loom up among the political eventualities of the day, and many foresaw that not only would the slaves secure their freedom, but that they would also have votes. . . .

During Mr. Stanton's stay in Savannah we discussed this negro question very fully; he asked me to draft an order on the subject, in accordance with my own views, that would meet the pressing necessities of the case, and I did so. We went over this order, No. 15, of January 16, 1865, very carefully. . . . I published it, and it went into operation at once. It provided fully for the enlistment of colored troops, and gave the freedmen certain possessory rights to land. . . .

Having accomplished all that seemed necessary, on the 21st of January, with my entire headquarters, officers, clerks, orderlies, etc., with wagons and horses, I embarked in a steamer for Beaufort, South Carolina. . . .

Library of Congress

Soldiers killed in the Civil War.

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PROGRAM 4

Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains

1865-1890

Curriculum Connection

This video program provides an in-depth perspective on the movement of outsiders into the Great Plains during the latter half of the 19th century and the subsequent conflicts between these new settlers and the indigenous peoples, including the Pawnee, Cheyenne, Crow, and Sioux. It focuses on the Lakota people, a branch of the Sioux nation, and one of their legendary leaders, Red Cloud. Thus the program can be used in conjunction with secondary school U.S. history curriculum guides and standard textbook chapters on the post-Civil War clash of cultures on the Great Plains.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Describe the traditional relationship of the Lakota people to their environment
2. Describe conflicts of the Lakotas and other indigenous peoples of the Great Plains with outsiders who moved into the area during the 1860s and 1870s
3. Explain how the movement of these outsiders to the Great Plains affected the culture, or way of life, of the Lakota people
4. Provide reasons for the subjugation of the Lakotas and other indigenous peoples of the Great Plains
5. Describe the new relationships with the Great Plains environment that replaced the traditional way of the Lakotas

Geographic Theme

Relationships within Places: Humans and Environments

This program uses the geographic theme of human/environment relationships to examine the changing way of life of the Lakota people on the Great Plains.

Key Ideas

1. People interact with the environment to obtain a variety of resources that meet their needs.
2. People perceive the environment in different ways.
3. People adapt to and modify the environment in different ways.

People adapt to natural settings in ways that reflect their cultural values, economic and political circumstances, and technological abilities. This video program shows the contrast between the nomadic life of the Lakota people on the Great Plains and the life of European American settlers on the same land.

Program Summary

Life today for the Lakotas on the Pine Ridge reservation in South Dakota is much like that of other Americans. But before the coming of the European Americans, these native Americans had a much different culture, or way of life. Ranging freely over the expanses of the Great Plains, the grasslands region extending from west Texas into Canada, these nomads hunted the vast herds of buffalo that thrived on the grasslands. The buffalo provided the Lakotas with food, clothing, blankets, tepees, moccasins, tools, and many other items.

After the Civil War ended in 1865, soldiers and settlers began pouring into the Indians' hunting grounds, building forts and establishing farms and settlements. Their fences, towns, and roads blocked the free movement of Indian hunters and their buffalo. The Lakotas, led by Chief Red Cloud, fought these incursions and won a few battles. But a train trip to Washington, D.C., to see the U.S. president apparently convinced Red Cloud that he and his people could never win a war against the military might of the United States, and he made peace.

For the Indians the buffalo was a resource that would last forever. For the settlers it was a nuisance or a cheap source of meat. Tourists shot buffalo from railroad car windows for the fun of it. Professional hunters killed them for their hides. As a result buffaloes were disappearing from the Great Plains. Another Lakota chief, Sitting Bull, decided to continue fighting. In June 1876, in the hills of southern Montana, more than two thousand Indians led by Sitting Bull defeated the cavalry troops of Colonel George Custer, killing them all. These Indians could not survive for long cut off from the dwindling buffalo herd, however, and they surrendered a few years later.

This clash of two cultures ended in the destruction of the Lakota way of life. Red Cloud and his people were moved to the Pine Ridge reservation, confined to a small fraction of the area of their old hunting grounds and dependent on the federal government for basic necessities. In 1890 the Lakotas attempted one final revolt, staging a ghost dance to seek divine intervention. Federal agents banned the dance, and U.S. soldiers put down the revolt at Wounded Knee Creek, opening fire and killing more than 150 men, women, and children who had fled the reservation in fear.

Before the Program

- Read this quotation to students:

  The Great Spirit raised me in this land and has raised you in another land. . . . I mean to keep this land.
  Red Cloud, Chief of the Lakotas, 1868

  Then ask them to speculate on the meaning of this statement. Why did Red Cloud say this, and to whom was he speaking? Ask them what they know about Red Cloud and the Lakota people. Where and how did these people live during the 1860s? Ask students if they know how the Lakotas related to their environment at that time.

- On a map of the United States, point to the Great Plains and tell students that the northern part of this region was the traditional homeland of the Lakotas. Then point to the approximate location of the Pine Ridge reservation in southwest South Dakota to show where the Lakotas live today. Tell students that this change from a boundless homeland on the northern Great Plains to one restricted to a reservation brought a major change in the Lakotas' way of life. Have students make inferences about the Lakotas' way of life. Ask them: Why did the Lakotas' way of life change so dramatically? Have them construct their answers in this way: "The Lakotas' way of life changed *because* . . ." Accept all hypotheses and record them for later use.

- Distribute to students copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video program they will view. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.

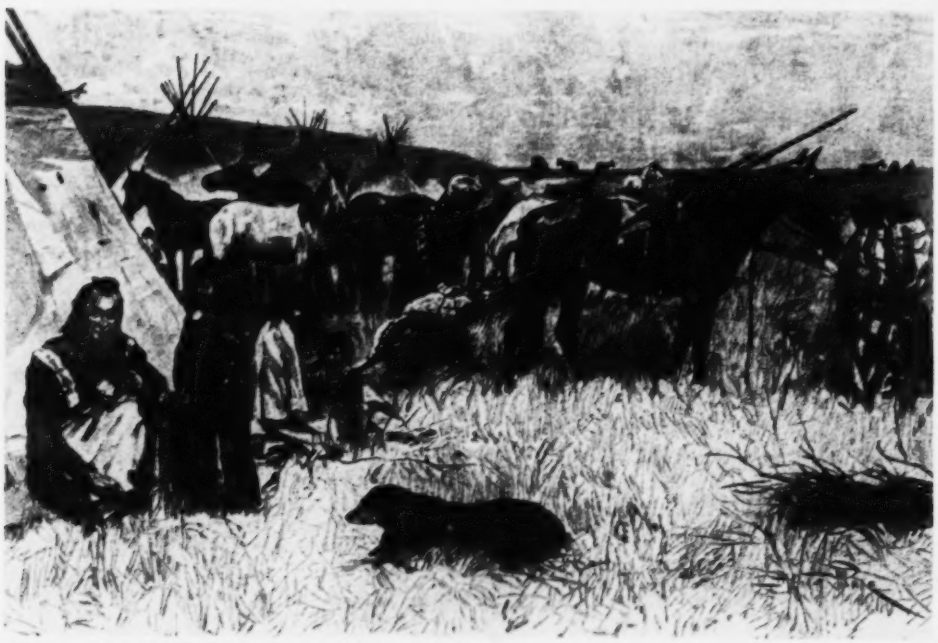
- Tell students they will view a video program about the ways the Lakota people interacted with the environment and how their ways were changed by outsiders who settled on the Great Plains during the latter half of the 19th century. Tell them that the program will present evidence to help them test their hypotheses.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about two and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the questions posed here by the host: "What were the relationships of the Lakotas to this natural environment of the Great Plains? What happened in the late 1800s to change forever these relationships– and the traditional culture of the Lakota people?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their speculative responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "What was Red Cloud's way– the Lakota way? How did all this change during the last half of the 19th century?" Review the hypotheses developed earlier by the students. Which ones were supported by the evidence presented in the program?
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.
  1. What were the main characteristics of the Lakota culture, the Lakota people's way of interacting with the natural environment of the northern Great Plains? *(Nomadic hunting of buffalo for a variety of uses, living in camps, traveling freely.)*
  2. Why did the movement of outsiders into the Great Plains during the 1860s and 1870s lead to conflict between the newcomers and the Lakotas? *(Newcomers put up towns, fences, railroads that blocked Indians' movement.)*
  3. How did the coming of white people to the Great Plains change the way of



v. and J. Duncan, Savannah

An encampment of Sioux on the Great Plains, 19th century.

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life of the Lakotas and other native peoples of the region? *(Indians could not move freely; buffalo were killed off; Indians were confined to reservations.)*

4. What new ways of interacting with the natural environment of the Great Plains were established by the new settlers? *(Farming on settled lands; living in towns; transportation networks.)*
5. How did the life of Red Cloud reflect the life and destiny of the Lakota people? *(Life ways were destroyed by white people.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. These activities involve interpreting a timeline and a document.

Answers to Handout B: (1)*1866, 1869, 1871, 1874, 1878, 1885, 1890.* (2) *1866, 1867, 1868, 1876.* (3) *1878, 1890.* (4) and (5) *Answers will vary.* (6) *Newcomers had little use for buffalo, built forts and railroads; Lakotas needed buffalo, resisted changes.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Freedom, independence, bravery, trustworthiness.* (2) *Farming, roads, fences.* (3) *Newcomers imposed laws on Indians, took their lands, destroyed the buffalo.* (4) *Newcomers lived settled life, used roads, kept cattle.* (5) *Newcomers destroyed everything except the Lakotas' common memory of their way of life.*

Suggested Reading

Brown, Dee. *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee.* Several editions.

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De Mallie, Raymond J., and Elaine A. Jahner, editors. *Lakota Belief and Ritual by James R. Walker.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1980.

Utah State Historical Society

Native Americans help build the Union Pacific Railroad.

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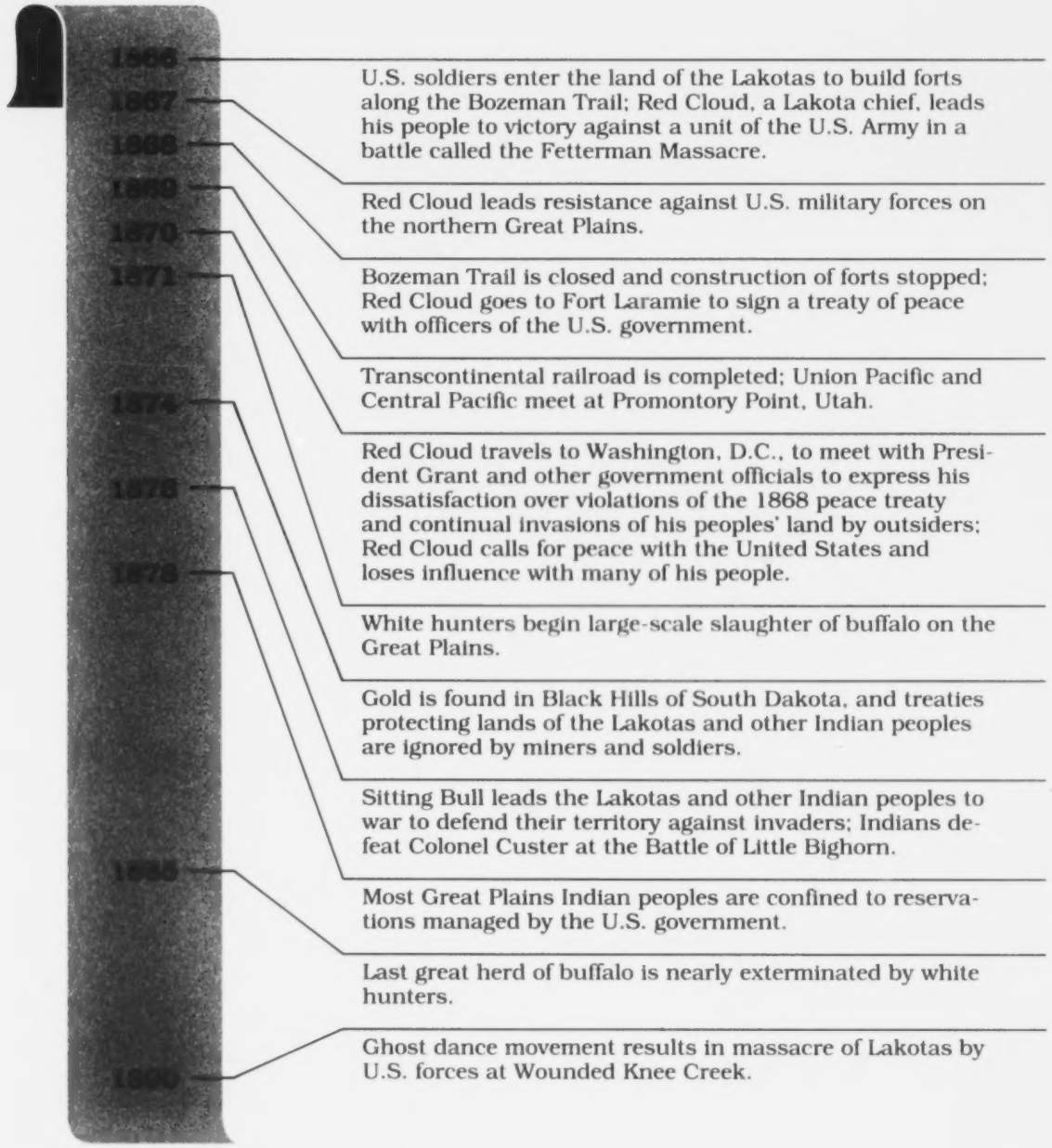
PROGRAM 4

Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1866
U.S. soldiers enter the land of the Lakotas to build forts along the Bozeman Trail; Red Cloud, a Lakota chief, leads his people to victory against a unit of the U.S. Army in a battle called the Fetterman Massacre.
1867
Red Cloud leads resistance against U.S. military forces on the northern Great Plains.
1868
Bozeman Trail is closed and construction of forts stopped; Red Cloud goes to Fort Laramie to sign a treaty of peace with officers of the U.S. government.
1869
1870
1871
Transcontinental railroad is completed; Union Pacific and Central Pacific meet at Promontory Point, Utah.
1874
Red Cloud travels to Washington, D.C., to meet with President Grant and other government officials to express his dissatisfaction over violations of the 1868 peace treaty and continual invasions of his peoples' land by outsiders; Red Cloud calls for peace with the United States and loses influence with many of his people.
1876
White hunters begin large-scale slaughter of buffalo on the Great Plains.
1878
Gold is found in Black Hills of South Dakota, and treaties protecting lands of the Lakotas and other Indian peoples are ignored by miners and soldiers.
Sitting Bull leads the Lakotas and other Indian peoples to war to defend their territory against invaders; Indians defeat Colonel Custer at the Battle of Little Bighorn.
1880
Most Great Plains Indian peoples are confined to reservations managed by the U.S. government.
Last great herd of buffalo is nearly exterminated by white hunters.
1890
Ghost dance movement results in massacre of Lakotas by U.S. forces at Wounded Knee Creek.

PROGRAM 4

Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Timeline

Examine the timeline for this lesson (Handout A) and answer the following questions about its data.

1. Which events in the timeline reflect interference with the Lakota culture by white people moving into the Great Plains?

2. Which events indicate successes of the Lakotas in dealing with the new settlers?

3. Which events pertain directly to the defeat of the Lakotas by U.S. military forces and settlers?

4. Which three of these events are most important to U.S. history? Rank your selections in order of importance and explain your selections and rankings.

5. What three events in U.S. history should be added to the timeline? Where would they go? Why would you add them?

6. What does the timeline reveal about the contrasting views of the Lakotas and the newcomers concerning the use of the environment?

PROGRAM 4

Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine this primary document, which contains excerpts from a speech given by Chief Red Cloud to his Lakota people at the Pine Ridge Agency, the reservation managed by the U.S. government to which Red Cloud and his people were confined. In this speech, delivered when Red Cloud was about 80 years old, he reveals his thoughts about the tragedies that he and his people had experienced through contact with white Americans. Use information and ideas acquired from the document as evidence to support or justify your answers to these questions.

1. Which parts of the Lakota culture did Red Cloud value most?

2. Which parts of the white American culture clashed most sharply with the Lakota way of life, according to Red Cloud?

3. What were Red Cloud's grievances against the white people who came to the country of the Lakotas?

4. Red Cloud felt that these white people and his Lakota people interacted differently with the environment. What are the differences he perceived?

5. According to Red Cloud, how did these white settlers change the Lakota way of life?

PROGRAM 4

Clash of Cultures on the Great Plains

DOCUMENT

Red Cloud Speaks to His People

July 4, 1903

My sun is set. My day is done. Darkness is stealing over me. Before I lie down to rise no more, I will speak to my people. . . .

I was born a Lakota and I have lived a Lakota and I shall die a Lakota. Before the white man came to our country, the Lakotas were a free people. They made their own laws and governed themselves as it seemed good to them. Then they were independent and happy. Then they could choose their own friends and fight their enemies. Then men were brave and to be trusted.

The white man came and took our lands from us. They put us in bounds and made laws for us. We were not asked what laws would suit us. But the white men made the laws to suit themselves and they compel us to obey them. . . .

. . . [T]he white man has taken our territory and destroyed our game so we must eat the white man's food or die. . . .

We told them that the supernatural powers, *Taku Wakan*, had given to the Lakotas the buffalo for food and clothing. We told them that where the buffalo ranged, that was our country. We told them that the country of the buffalo was the country of the Lakotas. We told them that the buffalo must have their country and the Lakotas must have the buffalo.

Now where the buffalo ranged there are wires on posts that mark the land where the white man labors and sweats to get food from the earth; and in the place of the buffalo there are cattle that must be cared for to keep them alive; and where the Lakota could ride as he wished from the rising to the setting of the sun for days and days on his own lands, now he must go on roads made by the white man. . . .

Our children cannot forget their own people, and when the older people tell them of the time when the Lakotas moved across the land as free as the winds and no one could say to them "go here or stay there"; of the times when men did not labor and sweat to stay in one place; of the times when to hunt the buffalo and keep the tipi was all the care there was; of the times when brave men could win respect and renown on the warpath– then they sing the Indian songs and would be as the Lakotas were and not as the white men are. . . .

Shadows are long and dark before me. I shall soon lie down to rise no more. While my spirit is with my body the smoke of my breath shall be towards the Sun for he knows all things and knows that I am still true to him.

Smithsonian Institution

Chief Red Cloud

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PROGRAM 5

An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh

1865-1900

Curriculum Connection

This video program emphasizes the influence of geography on industrial development in the United States during the latter part of the 19th century. It provides a case study of the conditions and consequences of industrialization by focusing on one place, Pittsburgh. Thus the program complements and enriches the standard treatments of industrial development found in secondary school U.S. history textbook chapters, which often mention Pittsburgh as a prominent site of industrialization.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Define the term *industrial revolution* and apply this idea to Pittsburgh during the second half of the 19th century
2. Explain the factors that influenced the development of Pittsburgh's iron and steel industries
3. Compare the natural and human characteristics of Pittsburgh before and after its industrial revolution to show how this place was fundamentally changed
4. Evaluate the positive and negative aspects of changes in Pittsburgh that resulted from this industrial development

Geographic Theme

Place: Physical and Human Characteristics

This program uses the theme of place to examine the changes that occurred in one city as the result of the industrial revolution.

Key Ideas

1. Places have physical characteristics.
2. Places have human characteristics.
3. Places can be described in different ways.
4. The natural and human characteristics of places can change over time.
5. The natural and human characteristics of places help to identify and interpret the interactions that occur between people and environments.

Pittsburgh exhibits such *physical characteristics* as rivers, valleys, and steep hills. *Human characteristics* such as steel mills, bridges, and ethnic neighborhoods add to Pittsburgh's character. And the smoke, smell, and noise of the steel industry have helped shape the image and *meaning* that people have of Pittsburgh. Taken together, the tangible and intangible characteristics of places provide keys to identifying and interpreting simple and complex relationships between people and their environments. A careful examination of the changing characteristics of Pittsburgh between 1820 and 1900 reveals a great deal about the impact of the industrial revolution.

Program Summary

Pittsburgh was an important place in the industrial development of the United States. Located where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers join to form the Ohio River, this city became the center of steel production for the United States and the world in the late 19th century.

The industrial revolution transformed Pittsburgh's natural and human characteristics, providing a revealing example of what also happened in other parts of the United States at that time. Pittsburgh was a rather small city in a pristine setting until about 1850, when the availability of important natural resources made Pittsburgh a likely place for the development of steel mills. Andrew Carnegie led the way in combining these resources with new industrial technologies. Iron ore was mined on the shores of Lake Superior and transported 900 miles by water and railroad to Pittsburgh; coal was mined in Pennsylvania, manufactured into coke, and transported to Pittsburgh; manganese came from Virginia, and limestone was available near Pittsburgh. In the city they were processed at Carnegie's huge factories into steel for use in constructing rail lines and buildings across the United States. Workers, many of them immigrants, worked long and hard for little pay. Few were able to compete with the effective and efficient operations of Carnegie and the advantages of Pittsburgh's location, which brought about an explosive expansion of industries and changed the city permanently.

The positive outcomes of industrial and economic growth were urban development, general prosperity, and new opportunities for many people. But there was also a negative side: pollution of the natural environment, exploitation of factory workers, and haphazard urban growth. The program asks viewers to assess the consequences of industrial development in this place, Pittsburgh.

Before the Program

- Write the term *industrial revolution* on the chalkboard. Ask students to discuss its meaning and its application to U.S. history. Ask questions such as these: What is an industrial revolution? When did such a revolution happen in the United States? What were its consequences?

Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh

A view of Pittsburgh before the industrial revolution.

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- Write the word *Pittsburgh* on the chalkboard and point to the city's location on a map. Tell students that Pittsburgh became a major steel-making center during the industrial revolution because of its location. Tell students that to make one pound of steel required two pounds of iron ore, one and a half pounds of coal (made into coke), a half pound of limestone, and a small amount of manganese. Using the map, show students that the coal and limestone were found in the Pittsburgh area, the iron ore was brought to Pittsburgh by boat and rail from the shores of Lake Superior (near Duluth, Minnesota), and the manganese came by rail from Virginia.
- Distribute to students copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video program they will view. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the effects of the industrial revolution on Pittsburgh during the latter part of the 19th century.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about one and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the questions posed here by the host: "Why did an industrial revolution happen in Pittsburgh? How did it change the city's natural and human characteristics?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their speculative responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "How did the industrial revolution change this place? When we add it all up, did the good outweigh the bad?" Encourage students to draw upon information presented in the program.

Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh

A view of Pittsburgh after the industrial revolution.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

1. What is an industrial revolution? *(Replacement of hand tools and muscle power by machines.)*

2. When did an industrial revolution happen in Pittsburgh and other parts of the United States? *(Latter part of the 19th century.)*

3. What did the following conditions, events, and people have to do with the industrial revolution in Pittsburgh?
   a. Pittsburgh's location at the junction of three rivers. *(Ideal for trade and transportation center.)*
   b. Availability of large supplies of coal in and around Pittsburgh. *(Good source of energy for heavy industry.)*
   c. Massive growth of railroad transportation in the United States. *(Iron and steel was needed for tracks.)*
   d. Andrew Carnegie and the Carnegie Steel Company. *(Transformed steel production.)*
   e. Arrival of masses of European immigrants in Pittsburgh. *(Provided cheap labor.)*
   f. Construction of a railroad from the port of Conneaut on Lake Erie to the Carnegie Steel Company in Pittsburgh. *(Moved iron ore for steel production.)*
   g. Henry Clay Frick. *(Controlled coal fields and coke production; Carnegie made him a partner.)*
   h. Homestead Strike. *(Workers crushed by Carnegie.)*

4. How did the industrial revolution change the human and natural characteristics of the place called Pittsburgh? Ask students to respond generally in terms of the following categories, describing conditions before and after the revolution.
   a. Population size. *(From small to overcrowded.)*
   b. Ethnic groups in the population. *(Many immigrants, especially from Eastern Europe.)*
   c. Natural environment– for example, use of rivers, river banks, and hillsides; air quality. *(Industry crowded in; pollution became a problem; land scarred.)*
   d. Urban development. *(Small city became a sprawling city.)*
   e. Employment opportunities. *(Grew tremendously.)*
   f. Educational opportunities. *(Much improved.)*
   g. Production of manufactured goods. *(Became large-scale.)*
   h. Generation of wealth. *(Industrial revolution brought prosperity.)*

5. What were the consequences of the 19th-century industrial revolution on Pittsburgh? In conducting this discussion, refer to Handout C on making evaluations and ask students to use it as a guide in responding to the following questions.
   a. What were three positive consequences? *(Better housing, educational opportunities, prosperity.)* Why do you judge these consequences as positive? *(Answers will vary.)*
   b. What were three negative consequences? *(Overcrowding, pollution, exploitation of workers.)* Why do you judge these consequences as negative? *(Answers will vary.)*
   c. On balance, do the positive consequences outweigh the negative consequences? Why? State at least two reasons. *(Answers will vary.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students the follow-up activity, which appears as Handout B at the end of this lesson. This activity involves interpreting two documents.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *Located at river junction among high hills, houses of brick and far apart, pleasing view, good air.* (2) *Smoky, dismal, dark, dingy; busy with work; natural hills sliced up; railroads everywhere; factories, foundries belching smoke; fine public buildings.* (3) *Pittsburgh changed from a small city to an industrial giant.* (4) *Still located in valley between hills at river junction.* (5) *Most of the changes were a result of the industrial revolution.* (6) *Students' evaluations will differ.*

Suggested Reading

Carnegie, Andrew. *Autobiography.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1920.

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Livesay, Harold C. *Andrew Carnegie and the Rise of Big Business.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1975.

Lubove, Roy, editor. *Pittsburgh: A Documentary History.* New York: Franklin Watts, 1976.

Mitchell, Robert D., and Paul A. Groves, editors. *North America: The Historical Geography of a Changing Continent,* pp. 321-346. Totowa, N.J.: Rowman & Littlefield, 1987.

Russel, Robert R. *A History of the American Economic System,* pp. 293-444. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964.

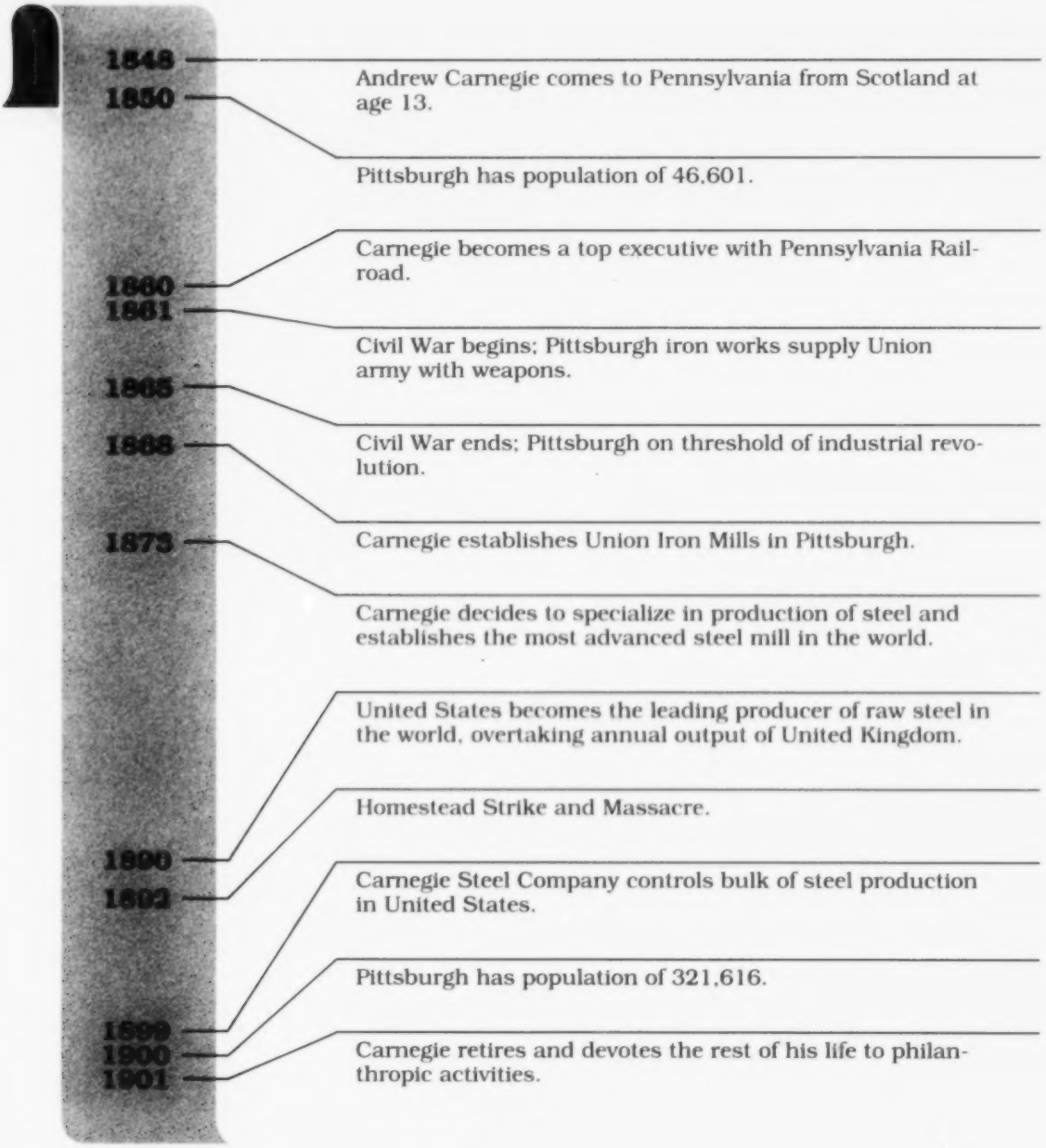
Smith, Arthur G. *Pittsburgh: Then and Now.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1990.

PROGRAM 5

An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1848
Andrew Carnegie comes to Pennsylvania from Scotland at age 13.
1850
Pittsburgh has population of 46,601.
Carnegie becomes a top executive with Pennsylvania Railroad.
1860
1861
Civil War begins; Pittsburgh iron works supply Union army with weapons.
1865
Civil War ends; Pittsburgh on threshold of industrial revolution.
1868
Carnegie establishes Union Iron Mills in Pittsburgh.
1873
Carnegie decides to specialize in production of steel and establishes the most advanced steel mill in the world.
United States becomes the leading producer of raw steel in the world, overtaking annual output of United Kingdom.
Homestead Strike and Massacre.
1890
1892
Carnegie Steel Company controls bulk of steel production in United States.
Pittsburgh has population of 321,616.
1899
1900
1901
Carnegie retires and devotes the rest of his life to philanthropic activities.

PROGRAM 5

An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Document

Examine these two primary documents about the environment of Pittsburgh at the beginning and end of the 19th century. Document 1 was written in 1802 by Francois Andre Michaux, a French visitor to America, and published in *Travels to the West of the Alleghany Mountains.* Document 2 was written after a visit to Pittsburgh in 1883 by Willard Glazier, an American journalist, and published in *Peculiarities of American Cities.* Use information and ideas acquired from the documents as evidence to support or justify your answers to these questions.

1. What are the major characteristics of Pittsburgh as described in document 1 (1802)?

2. What are the major characteristics of Pittsburgh as described in document 2 (1883)?

3. How did the characteristics of Pittsburgh change from 1802 to 1883?

4. Which characteristics of Pittsburgh were the same in 1802 and 1883?

5. What did the industrial revolution have to do with the similarities and differences described in Pittsburgh in 1802 and 1883?

6. In what ways was Pittsburgh a better or worse place in 1883 than it was in 1802?

PROGRAM 5

An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh

Document 1

Pittsburgh in 1802

Pittsburgh is situated at the conflux of the rivers Monongahela and Alleghany, the uniting of which forms the Ohio. The even soil upon which it is built is not more than forty or fifty acres in extent. It is in the form of an angle, the three sides of which are enclosed either by the bed of the two rivers or by stupendous mountains. The houses are principally brick, they are computed to be about four hundred, most of which are built upon the Monongahela. . . . [A] great number of the houses are separated from each other by large spaces . . . . This spot [the high ground overlooking the city] affords the most pleasing view, produced by the perspective of the rivers, overshadowed with forests. . . .

The air is very salubrious [wholesome and conducive to good health] at Pittsburgh and its environs; intermittent fevers are unknown there. . . .

Pittsburgh has been long considered by the Americans as the key to the western country. . . . However, though this town has lost its importance as a military post, it has acquired a still greater one in respect to commerce. . . .

The conveyance of merchandise from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh is made in large covered wagons, drawn by four horses two abreast. . . . They reckon it to be three hundred miles from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, and the carriers generally make it a journey of from twenty to twenty-four days. . . .

Pittsburgh is not only the staple of the Philadelphia and Baltimore trade with the western country, but of the numerous settlements that are formed upon the Monongahela and Alleghany. . . . All these advantages joined together have, within these ten years, increased tenfold the population and price of articles in the town, and contribute to its improvements, which daily grow more and more rapid. . . .

Document 2

Pittsburgh in 1883

Pittsburgh is a smoky, dismal city, at her best. At her worst, nothing darker, dingier or more dispiriting can be imagined. The city is in the heart of the soft coal region; and the smoke from her dwellings, stores, factories, foundries, and steamboats . . . settles in a cloud over the narrow valley in which she is built, until the very sun looks coppery through the sooty haze. . . . But her inhabitants do not seem to mind it. . . . [They] are all too busy to reflect upon the inconvenience or uncomeliness of this smoke. Work is the object of life with them. It occupies them from morning until night, from the cradle to the grave. . . .

Pittsburgh is situated in western Pennsylvania, in a narrow valley at the confluence of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, and at the head of the Ohio, and is surrounded by hills rising to the height of four to five hundred feet. These hills once possessed rounded outlines, with sufficient exceptional abruptness to lend them variety and picturesqueness. But they have been been leveled down, cut into, sliced off, and ruthlessly marred and mutilated, until not a trace of their original outlines remain. Great black coal cars crawl up and down their sides. . . . Railroad tracks gridiron the ground everywhere, debris of all sorts lies in heaps, and is scattered over the e. th, and huts and hovels are perched here and there, in every available spot. . . . And on the edge of the city are the unpicturesque outlines of factories and foundries, their tall chimneys belching forth columns of inky blackness, which roll and whirl in fantastic shapes, and finally lose themselves in the general murkiness above. . . .

The public buildings and churches of Pittsburgh are, some of them, of fine appearance, while the Mercantile Library is an institution to be proud of. . . . The city boasts of universities, colleges, hospitals, and asylums. . . . There are also two theatres, an Opera House, an Academy of Music, and several public halls. . . .

. . . Actual measurement shows that there are, in the limits of what is known as Pittsburgh, nearly thirty-five miles of manufactories of iron, of steel, of cotton, and of brass alone, not mentioning manufactories of other materials. . . . [A]nd through the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and their tributaries, its people control the shipment of goods . . . over twelve thousand miles of water transportation, and are thus enabled to deliver the products of their thrift in nearly four hundred counties in the territory of fifteen states. There is no city of its size in the country which has so large a banking capital as Pittsburgh. The bank of Pittsburgh, it is said, is the only bank in the Union that never suspended specie payments. . . .

Pittsburgh is a city of workers. From the proprietors of these extensive works, down to the youngest apprentices, all are busy; and perhaps the higher up in the scale the harder the work and the greater the worry. . . .

PROGRAM 5

An Industrial Revolution in Pittsburgh

HANDOUT C

Making Evaluations

You can make evaluations about major historical events. For example, you might evaluate the consequences of the industrial revolution on Pittsburgh.

Everyone makes evaluations, or judgments. You make an evaluation when you think a school rule is not fair or is good. You judge a friend's decision when you say, "That is a good idea" or "That's a bad plan."

Evaluating is deciding whether something is good or bad, better or worse, right or wrong. When you judge objects, decisions, or events to be good or bad, you are placing a value on them. You are saying what you believe is their worth to you. Your evaluation depends to a great extent upon your own beliefs about right and wrong.

To make an evaluation of a historical event, begin by *identifying major positive consequences of the event.* In the case of Pittsburgh, you might list three important ways in which Pittsburgh benefited from the industrial revolution (more jobs, for example).

Next, *identify major negative consequences of the event.* In the case of Pittsburgh, you might list three important costs of the industrial revolution (more air pollution, for example).

Finally, *weigh the positive against the negative and make your evaluation, or judgment.* In the case of Pittsburgh, you might ask yourself, "Do the benefits (positive consequences) of the industrial revolution outweigh the costs (negative consequences)?"

Be prepared to explain your judgment, or evaluation. Your evaluation should be based upon your belief about good and bad, right and wrong.

PROGRAM 6

Americans Build the Panama Canal

1901-1914

Curriculum Connection

The story of the Panama Canal is part of every curriculum guide and textbook designed for secondary school U.S. history courses. These materials, however, tend to provide only a brief overview of the development and significance of the canal. This video program can be used in combination with standard textbooks to provide an in-depth study with geographic perspectives on the acquisition of the Canal Zone and construction of the canal.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Explain why President Theodore Roosevelt and other leaders in the United States wanted to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama
2. Explain how the characteristics of the Isthmus of Panama affected critical decisions and actions of the people responsible for construction of the Panama Canal
3. Explain how the location of a place, such as Panama, affects the way people use that place
4. Make judgments about the importance of the Panama Canal to interests of the United States in the early part of the 20th century and today

Geographic Theme

Location: Position on the Earth's Surface

In this program, the geographic theme of location is used to explain and evaluate the decision to build a canal in Central America and specifically in Panama.

Key Ideas

1. Location of places can be described in absolute and relative terms.
2. Relative location may reflect the perspective of an individual or group at a particular place or time.
3. People make decisions about locations.

Location refers to the position of people and places on the earth's surface. One way to describe position is in terms of relative location—the relationship of one place to another. Thus one way to describe Central America is in terms of its relative location with respect to the East and West coasts of the United States. Panama's location in Central America made it of particular interest to President Theodore Roosevelt and others looking for a place to build a canal. But some proponents felt the canal should be built in Nicaragua—another locational question explored in this program.

Program Summary

The Panama Canal in Central America was built in the first years of this century at a cost of 25,000 human lives. Its chief purpose, as argued by its strongest proponent, President Theodore Roosevelt, was to move United States warships quickly between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans to better defend U.S. coastlines. Such a canal would also shorten the trade route. Without a canal, ships had to take a route three times longer, around the horn of South America.

Central America's unique location made it the obvious choice for a canal. And the Isthmus of Panama, a narrow strip of land only 50 miles from shore to shore, offered the shortest route. But Panama had major drawbacks: its mountains were difficult to cross, its rainy season lasted eight months every year, and its hot and humid, mosquito-laden environment spread yellow fever and malaria. These obstacles had already defeated a French attempt to build a canal there.

In November 1903 the United States signed a treaty by which it paid Panama $10 million for the right to build the canal and to control its operation. To make the place safe for the thousands of workers, U.S. health officials waged a successful campaign to wipe out the mosquitos. Then the chief engineer, John Stevens, designed and built a simple but ingenious system of locks that allowed water and gravity to do the work of lifting ships across the mountains.

After a decade of heavy labor during which Stevens resigned and was replaced by George Goethals, the canal system was tested in October 1913; it worked perfectly. Opened in August 1914, the canal proved its worth in speeding up the transit time of U.S. battleships during World War I. Today it handles thousands of military and commercial ships every year. In 1977 the United States and Panama signed a treaty by which ownership of the canal will be handed over to Panama at the end of 1999.

Before the Program

- Identify Central America on a wall map or a map in a U.S. history textbook. Tell students that President Theodore Roosevelt, a firm believer in sea power, was the driving force behind the building of a canal in this region. Ask students to speculate about Roosevelt's reasoning. Ask them: Why did Roosevelt choose

National Archives

Panama Canal nearing completion in July 1913.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Central America for a canal? Encourage them to structure their hypotheses in this form: "Roosevelt chose Central America for a canal *because* . . ." Accept all hypotheses and record them for later use.

- Distribute to students copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video program they will see. You may also preview key events in the program by commenting on events in the timeline.
- Inform students that they will view a video program about the relationship of the location of a place, Panama, to the way that place was used to facilitate the military and trade interests of the United States.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about one and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the questions posed here by the host: "Why did Roosevelt choose Central America for the canal? Why was it built in Panama? And how did Panama's environment affect how the canal was built?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their speculative responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "Why did the United States build the canal where it did? And why is the canal's location still important today?" Review the hypotheses developed earlier by students about the Central American location. Which ones were supported by evidence presented in the program?
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

1. What did each of the following persons or events have to do with President Theodore Roosevelt's decision to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama?
   a. Alfred Thayer Mahan. *(His book showed Roosevelt the value of a canal.)*
   b. Spanish-American War. *(Voyage of U.S.S.* Oregon *around the horn of South America to Cuba demonstrated the military value of constructing a canal in Central America.)*
   c. Ferdinand de Lesseps. *(He failed in attempt to build canal in Panama.)*
   d. Panamanian Revolution. *(Ended Colombia's control over building of canal.)*
2. How did each of the following factors influence decisions and actions in construction of the Panama Canal?
   a. Climate. *(Unbearable heat and humidity, long rainy season in Panama were obstacles.)*
   b. Terrain. *(Panama's mountains made digging to sea level impossible, so lock and lake system was devised.)*
   c. Mosquitos. *(Spread malaria and yellow fever among workers and had to be eliminated.)*
3. What does the location of the Isthmus of Panama have to do with the way this place has been used during the 20th century? *(Ideal location for canal connecting the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean for faster movement of U.S. warships and trading vessels.)*
4. How has the Panama Canal benefited the United States? *(Canal is vital link in U.S. transportation network; U.S. benefited from much cheaper world sea trade.)* Have the benefits of the canal outweighed the costs of building it? *(Answers will vary.)*

5. How has the treaty-based relationship of the United States with the Panama Canal been changed? *(Panama gains ownership of canal in 1999.)* What is your evaluation of this change? *(Answers will vary.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students the follow-up activity, which appears as Handout B at the end of this lesson. It involves examination and interpretation of a primary document.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *Mahan felt a canal across the Isthmus of Panama was inevitable because of its benefits to U.S. trade and sea power.* (2) *Yes.* (3) *Canal would greatly increase trade, end U.S. isolation; but U.S. naval power must be made strong enough to control the canal.* (4) *Canal would heighten need for military preparedness.* (5) *Canal would make Pacific states more accessible to foreign powers.* (6) *Answers will vary.*

Suggested Reading

Beale, Howard K. *Theodore Roosevelt and the Rise of America to a World Power.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1956.

Burchill, S. C. *Building the Suez Canal.* New York: American Heritage, 1966.

Cameron, Ian. *The Impossible Dream: The Building of the Panama Canal.* New York: Morrow,1972.

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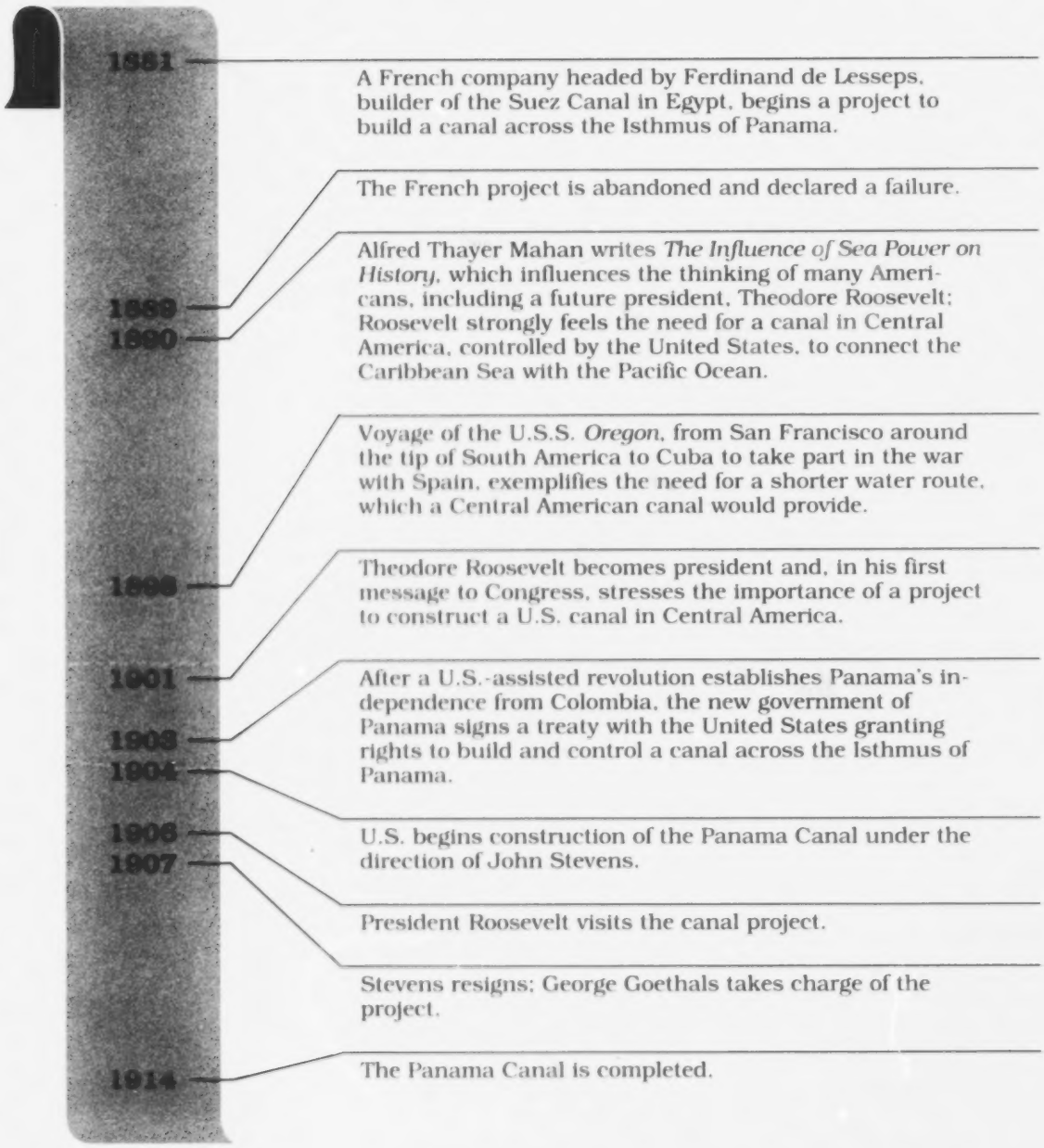
PROGRAM 6

Americans Build the Panama Canal

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1881
A French company headed by Ferdinand de Lesseps, builder of the Suez Canal in Egypt, begins a project to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama.
The French project is abandoned and declared a failure.
1889
1890
Alfred Thayer Mahan writes The Influence of Sea Power on History, which influences the thinking of many Americans, including a future president, Theodore Roosevelt; Roosevelt strongly feels the need for a canal in Central America, controlled by the United States, to connect the Caribbean Sea with the Pacific Ocean.
Voyage of the U.S.S. Oregon, from San Francisco around the tip of South America to Cuba to take part in the war with Spain, exemplifies the need for a shorter water route, which a Central American canal would provide.
1898
Theodore Roosevelt becomes president and, in his first message to Congress, stresses the importance of a project to construct a U.S. canal in Central America.
1901
After a U.S.-assisted revolution establishes Panama's independence from Colombia, the new government of Panama signs a treaty with the United States granting rights to build and control a canal across the Isthmus of Panama.
1903
1904
U.S. begins construction of the Panama Canal under the direction of John Stevens.
1906
1907
President Roosevelt visits the canal project.
Stevens resigns; George Goethals takes charge of the project.
1914
The Panama Canal is completed.

PROGRAM 6

Americans Build the Panama Canal

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Document

Examine and interpret the primary document, written by a prominent officer of the U.S. Navy, Alfred Thayer Mahan. This document is an excerpt from Mahan's book published in 1897, *The Interests of America in Sea Power: Present and Future.* This book and another one written by Mahan in 1890, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History,* had a strong influence on Theodore Roosevelt. Answer the following questions, using ideas and information acquired from the document to support or justify your answers.

1. Did Mahan believe that a canal would inevitably be built across a part of Central America? Where? Why?

2. Did Mahan want the United States to be the builder and controller of a Central American canal?

3. What arguments did Mahan use to influence leaders in the United States about the importance of a Central American canal and the desirability of preventing foreign powers from controlling such a facility?

4. How did Mahan connect his ideas about a Central American canal with ideas about military preparedness?

5. Why did Mahan believe that the construction of a Central American canal would expose the Pacific Coast of the United States to new dangers from foreign powers?

6. To what extent do you agree with the ideas expressed in this document?

PROGRAM 6

Americans Build the Panama Canal

DOCUMENT

Mahan's Ideas on a Central American Canal

. . . [T]here will dawn the realization of America's unique position, facing the older worlds of the East and West, her shores washed by the oceans which touch the one or the other, but which are common to her alone. . . .

. . . [T]he opening of a canal through the Central American Isthmus, . . . by modifying the direction of trade routes, will induce a great increase of commercial activity and carrying trade throughout the Caribbean Sea. . . . This now comparatively deserted nook of the ocean will become, like the Red Sea [after construction of the Suez Canal], a great thoroughfare of shipping, and will attract, as never before in our day, the interest and ambition of maritime nations. Every position in that sea will have enhanced commercial and military value, and the canal itself will have become a strategic center of the most vital importance. . . . It will be a link between the two oceans; but . . . use, unless most carefully guarded by treaties, will belong wholly to the belligerent which controls the sea by its naval power. In case of war, the United States will . . . be impotent, as against any of the great maritime powers [Britain, France, Germany, and Japan], to control the Central American canal. Militarily speaking, and having reference to European complications only, the piercing of the Isthmus is nothing but a disaster to the United States, in the present state of her military and naval preparation. It is especially dangerous to the Pacific coast; but the increased exposure of one part of our seaboard reacts unfavorably upon the whole military situation. . . .

The United States is woefully unready . . . to assert in the Caribbean and Central America a weight of influence proportional to the extent of her interests. . . . We have not the navy . . . that will weigh seriously in any disputes with those nations whose interests will conflict there with our own. . . . That which I deplore . . . is that the nation neither has nor cares to have its sea frontier so defended, and its navy of such power, as shall suffice, with the advantages of our position, to weigh seriously when inevitable discussions arise . . . about the Caribbean Sea or the canal. Is the United States, for instance, prepared to allow Germany to acquire the Dutch stronghold of Curacao, fronting the Atlantic outlet of both the proposed canals of Panama and Nicaragua? . . .

Our self-imposed isolation in the matter of markets, and the decline of our shipping interest in the last thirty years, have coincided singularly with an actual remoteness of this continent from the life of the rest of the world. . . .

When the Isthmus is pierced, this isolation will pass away, and with it the indifference of foreign nations. From wheresoever they come and whithersoever they afterward go, all ships that use the canal will pass through the Caribbean. Whatever the effect produced upon the prosperity of the adjacent continent and islands by the thousand wants attendant upon maritime activity, around such a focus of trade will center large commercial and political interests. To protect and develop its own, each nation will seek points of support and means of influence in a quarter where the United States always has been jealously sensitive to the intrusion of European powers. . . . But what right will she [the United States] invoke against [the interference of foreign powers in the Caribbean region]? She can allege but one, that of her reasonable policy supported by her might.

Whether they will or no, Americans must now begin to look outward. . . .

It has been said that, in our present state of unpreparedness, a trans-Isthmian canal will be a military disaster to the United States, and especially to the Pacific coast. When the canal is finished, the Atlantic seaboard will be neither more nor less exposed than it now is; it will merely share with the country at large the increased danger of foreign complications with inadequate means to meet them. The danger of the Pacific coast will be greater by so much as the way between it and Europe is shortened through a passage which the stronger maritime power can control. . . .

The military needs of the Pacific States, as well as their supreme importance to the whole country, are yet a matter of the future, but of a future so near that provision should begin immediately. . . .

PROGRAM 7

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

1850-1990

Curriculum Connection

This video program treats the theme of immigration to the United States during the 19th and 20th centuries, with particular emphasis on movement to the western region by immigrants from China. This theme fits into sections of secondary school U.S. history courses that deal with the movement of people to the United States and with government policies on immigration during the latter part of the 19th century and today.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Give reasons for the movement of Chinese immigrants to the United States in the 19th and 20th centuries
2. Compare reasons for the movement of Chinese people to the United States with reasons of other immigrant groups
3. Describe reasons for legal restrictions on Chinese immigration to the United States
4. Assess and evaluate the consequences of legal restrictions on immigration to the United States
5. Compare the Chinese immigration experience with that of other groups that came to the United States during the 19th and 20th centuries

Geographic Theme

Movement: Humans Interacting on the Earth

In this program, the geographic theme of movement is used to help students understand the experiences of Chinese immigrants to the United States over two centures.

Key Ideas

1. Patterns are formed by the movement of people, ideas, and products.
2. Movements occur for a variety of reasons.
3. Movements involve linkage between origins and destinations.

Relationships between people in different places constitute the theme of movement. People travel, moving from one place to another. People rely on goods that come from beyond their own environment. And people in different places communicate with one another.

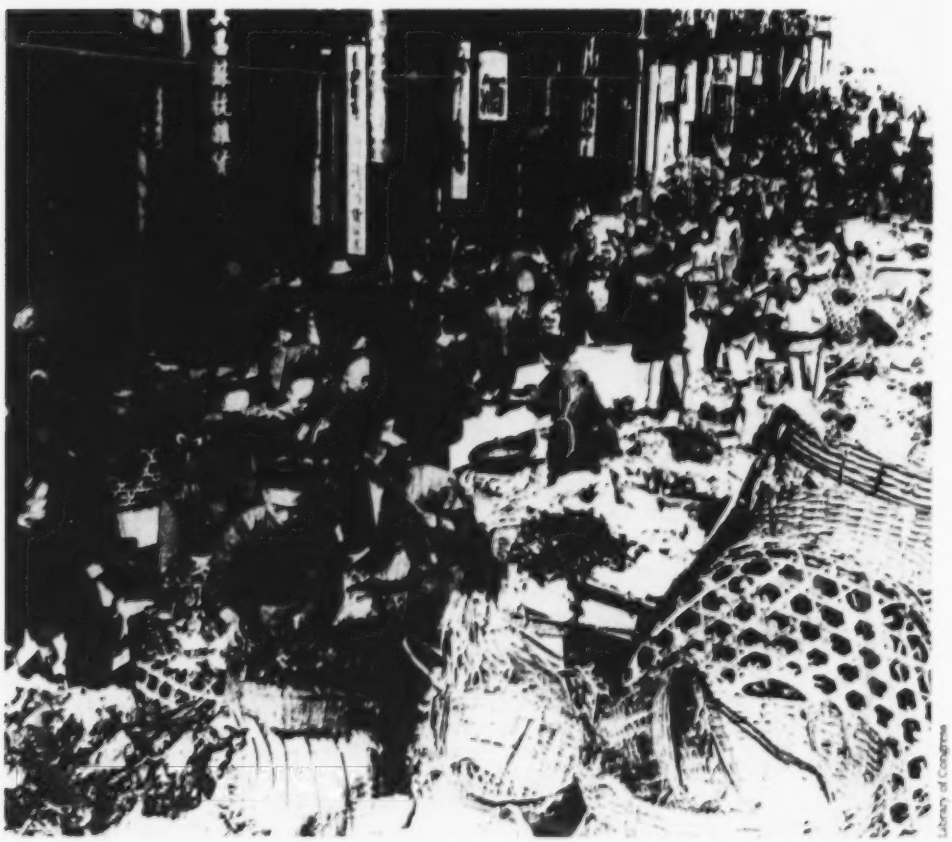
Migration is one type of human movement. It is a permanent move to a new location. Migration may be forced or voluntary, depending on who makes the decision to move. Africans taken by slave traders and forced aboard a ship to America did not make the decision to move for themselves; they were forced migrants. Voluntary migrants are persons who make the migration decision themselves. They are not forced to leave; they often leave because conditions in their homeland are not satisfactory and they believe that conditions elsewhere will be better. If a destination is perceived to be significantly more attractive than the place of origin, migration will take place– if barriers to movement such as costs and immigration laws can be overcome.

Program Summary

The United States is a nation of immigrants. All Americans, even the native Indians, are descendants of people who came from somewhere else. Many Africans came as slaves—involuntary immigrants. But the majority of settlers came voluntarily from Europe, many for economic betterment or for greater religious or political freedom. These immigrants generally were welcomed, for the country needed farmers and laborers.

In the last half of the 19th century, hundreds of thousands of U.S. immigrants came from China, attracted by the discovery of gold in California and by the need for agricultural workers and for laborers to help build cross-country railroads—back-breaking work at rock-bottom wages. Many U.S. citizens began to fear and even hate these newcomers, and they waged violent anti-Chinese race riots in western cities in the 1870s and 1880s. Unlike European immigrants, the Chinese could not easily blend in with the white majority.

California passed a series of discriminatory laws against the Chinese. Then in 1882 the federal government restricted Chinese immigration with the Chinese Exclusion Act. It opened the gates to millions of new immigrants from Europe while virtually imprisoning any would-be immigrants from China for interrogation and humiliation on small Angel Island in San Francisco Bay. Not until World War II, when the United States and China became allies, was the racist Exclusion Act repealed. The postwar years brought a massive new flood of immigrants from China, revitalizing the many Chinese-American communities in the United States.



Chinese at street market in Hong Kong, circa 1900.

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Before the Program

- Inform students that President John F. Kennedy wrote a book about the United States and titled it *A Nation of Immigrants*. Ask students to discuss the meaning of this title. Is it an accurate description of the United States? Why? Ask them where the people who moved to the United States came from.
- Using a wall map of the world or a map in a textbook, ask students to illustrate their responses to the preceding question by pointing to places in the world from which large numbers of people moved to the United States.
- Distribute copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the program students will view. You may also use it to preview key events of the program.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the movement of people from various parts of the world to the United States, with special emphasis on the experiences of Chinese immigrants during the 19th and 20th centuries.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about one and one-half minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the questions posed here by the host: "Why do immigrants leave their homelands? Why do some choose to come to the United States? What barriers do they face in coming here?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "Why have immigrants wanted to come to America? How did the changing immigration laws affect the different groups coming to this country? Should we,

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Chinese immigrants working in California farm fields.

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the citizens of the United States– the descendents of immigrants– limit the movement of people to this country?" Encourage students to draw upon information and examples from the program.

- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the video program in preparing their responses.

1. What does each of the following events have to do with the movement of Chinese people to the United States?
   a. Construction of the Central Pacific Railroad, 1863-1869. *(Many Chinese immigrated to work on railroad construction.)*
   b. Passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act, 1882. *(Greatly restricted Chinese immigration.)*
   c. Passage of the Johnsón-Reed Immigration Act, 1924. *(Further restricted Chinese immigration.)*
   d. World War II. *(U.S., China were allies; Exclusion Act repealed.)*
   e. Communist Revolution in China, 1949. *(Chinese political refugees fled to U.S.)*
   f. Immigration laws removing quotas based primarily on national origin. *(Greatly increased Chinese immigration; revitalized Chinese-American communities.)*

2. Compare reasons why Chinese immigrants moved to the United States with reasons of immigrant groups from Europe. To what extent are the reasons similar or different? *(Reasons quite similar: to find work, escape religious or political persecution.)*

3. Why were laws passed to restrict immigration of Chinese people to the United States? *(Prejudice against foreigners and persons of Chinese descent.)*

4. When and why were laws severely restricting Chinese immigration repealed? *(During World War II as a result of U.S.-China alliance.)*

5. Should immigration to the United States be open, with few exceptions, as it was during most of the 18th century? Explain. *(Answers will vary.)*

6. Compare the Chinese immigration experience with that of other groups that came to the United States during the 19th and 20th centuries. *(All had similar reasons for leaving old homes and coming here, and all were subject to immigration laws; but it was more difficult for Chinese than for Europeans to become completely integrated.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. They involve examination and interpretation of data in a bar graph and primary documents.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *The bar graph concerns the number of Chinese who immigrated into U.S. between 1901 and 1990.* (2) *1981-1990.* (3) *Increase.* (4) *Answers will vary.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Ho Yang came to U.S. because it was his father's dream; Arthur Wong came to fulfill dreams of work; Betty Chu came to escape Communist rule.* (2) *Ho Yang's father brought him to U.S.; Arthur Wong came alone; Betty Chu came with her husband, sponsored by his brother.* (3) *Ho Yang had problems in school but "caught on"; Arthur Wong was homesick but was helped by Chinese family associations; Betty Chu's son had difficulty adjusting, but he passed his school classes.* (4) *Ho Yang became a family association officer; Arthur Wong bought and ran a laundry; Betty Chu raised a family, worked at a hospital, became a U.S. citizen.* (5) *Yes; explanations will vary.*

Suggested Reading

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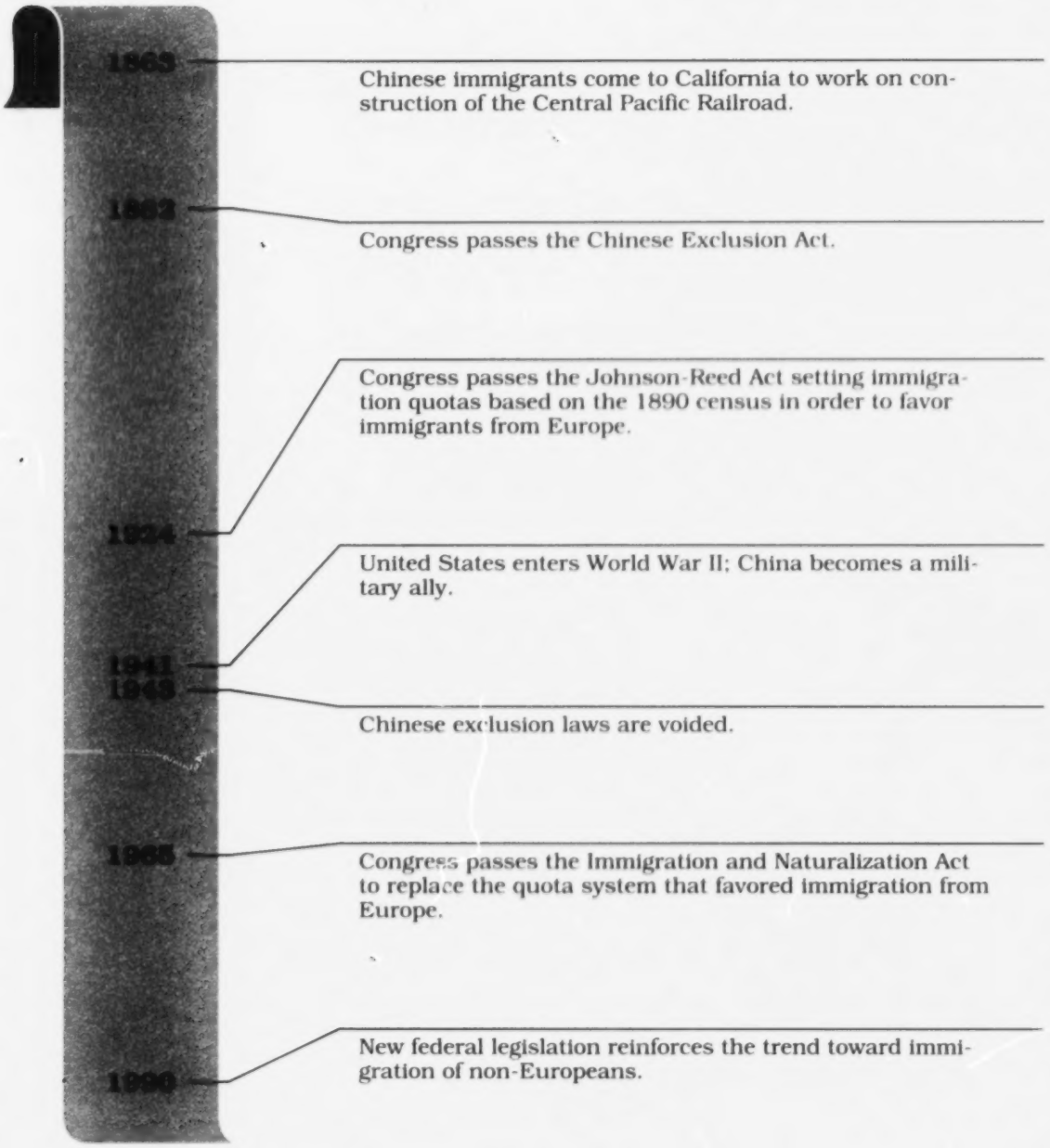
PROGRAM 7

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1863
Chinese immigrants come to California to work on construction of the Central Pacific Railroad.
1882
Congress passes the Chinese Exclusion Act.
Congress passes the Johnson-Reed Act setting immigration quotas based on the 1890 census in order to favor immigrants from Europe.
1924
United States enters World War II; China becomes a military ally.
1941
1943
Chinese exclusion laws are voided.
1965
Congress passes the Immigration and Naturalization Act to replace the quota system that favored immigration from Europe.
New federal legislation reinforces the trend toward immigration of non-Europeans.
1990

PROGRAM 7

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Bar Graph

To interpret information contained in a bar graph, begin by determining *what the bar graph is about.*

- *Inspect the title.* This will allow you to quickly determine the subject of the bar graph.
- *Examine the labels on the two axes* to determine what information is displayed on the graph and how it is organized.

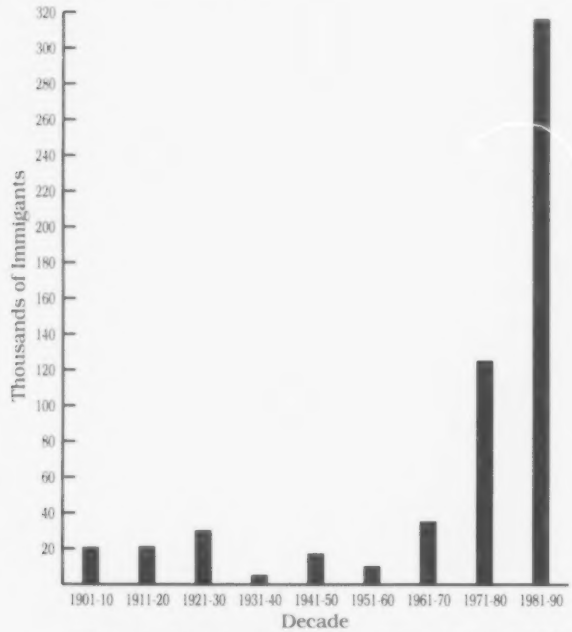
1. What is the bar graph shown here about?

Next, determine *what the bar graph says* by answering questions. The information needed to answer questions can be found by comparing the length of bars. For example, the first question below can be answered by comparing the size of the bars for the decades specified.

Figure out what the bar graph says by answering the following questions.

2. During which decade of the 20th century did the most Chinese people move to the United States?

3. Has Chinese immigration to the United States tended to increase or decrease during the second half of the 20th century?



Chinese Immigration into U.S., 1901-1990

The final step in interpreting a bar graph is to determine *what the graph means.* This requires answering a general question about what the graph says.

Determine what the bar graph means by answering the following question.

4. How would you explain the higher and lower periods of Chinese immigration into the United States in the 20th century?

PROGRAM 7

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine these three primary documents about the experiences of Chinese immigrants in the United States. The documents are taken from interviews conducted during the 1970s by Joan Morrison and Charlotte Fox Zabusky and published in *American Mosaic* (New York: Dutton, 1980). Answer the following questions, using information and ideas in the documents as evidence to support or justify your answers.

1. Why did each of these immigrants come to the United States?

2. How did each of these immigrants come to the United States?

3. What problems did each of these immigrants encounter in the United States? How did they cope with these problems?

4. What did each of these immigrants achieve in the United States?

5. In general, do these people express satisfaction with their decision to leave the land of their birth to live in the United States? Explain.

PROGRAM 7

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

Document 1

Ho Yang, from China to the United States, 1920

My village in Kwantung Province was very small, only about a hundred people, and it was really poor. . . . And America was the dream. My father went to Canton and worked there, and after a while, he saved up enough money and he came to the United States. And when I was thirteen, he came back to China and got me. . . .

In China I was educated in the old-fashioned school. . . . So it was hard for me in the American school. But I caught on after a while and I graduated from grammar school, high school, and junior college right here in San Francisco. . . .

There's really two reasons people like to live in Chinatown [in San Francisco]. One is the language. Some Chinese have been here thirty years and they've never been out of Chinatown and they can't speak English. The other reason is the work here. People own little shops [which provide jobs for Chinese immigrants]. . . .

[Mr. Ho Yang became an officer of one of the family associations that manages cultural and social life in the Chinatown of San Francisco.] Probably the most important thing the association does is to run the Chinese schools. It's to teach the Chinese culture and literature and that sort of thing. The trouble is the majority of the children don't want to go. We got the school going up to twelfth grade, but most of them only go just through sixth grade. Even my own three kids, they don't like to go to the Chinese school. They say, "Oh, Pop, what's the use of learning Chinese? We're in this country now."

Document 2

Arthur Wong, from China to the United States, 1930

In Chinatown there are family associations—the people that come from the same village, same surroundings, and so forth. They help one another, and they help me find jobs. . . .

I guess the biggest adjustment would be the separation of the family. You feel homesick and it's really a hardship. . . .

At that point, I have no contact with American[s]—none whatsoever. I landed in the ghetto [the Chinatown of New York City]. When I begin to understand English and I begin to step a little further from Chinatown, then I begin to notice things are different—outside Chinatown. . . .

After a few years in New York, working as a laundry worker until I master a few [words of] English I went to work as a waiter, a part-time waiter. And I work seven days! I work five and a half days in the laundry and work the whole weekend in the restaurant. And then

Security Pacific National Bank/L.A. Public Library

Chinese-American children in Los Angeles, 20th century.

A Nation of Immigrants: The Chinese-American Experience

came the war [World War II], and defense work open up, and some of my friends went to work in a defense plant, and they recommended that I should apply for defense work. So I went to work for Curtiss-Wright, making airplanes. . . . I got a deferment from the armed services until the situation got critical, and then I got drafted. . . . Well, actually, in those days you felt privileged to handle a gun to defend your country in World War II.

When I go back, I went back to the laundry. One day I hear there's a laundry shop for sale, and through friendship and grapevine I find this little laundry in New Jersey. And we looked at it and we bought it and we started our really long, successful journey till today. We work at it for twenty-seven years, and I think we did pretty well.

Practically most [of] our dreams have been fulfilled, up to this point. . . . With a little luck, we have accomplished. I got a family and started out, big long struggle, and own my own home, raised the children, educated them. . . .

Now I'm retiring from my long struggle. Certainly I don't think there's any other place in the world we could do what we did, with what I have. All I have is ten fingers. I have no money, no education. But I know I have one thing—an opportunity to prove what a man could do.

Document 3

Betty Chu, from China to the United States, 1969

My grandfather was the head of the family. He was a very wealthy man. He was a shipowner, and he owned all these silk stores. My father was some kind of bank officer. . . . I remember my early childhood as living in a huge mansion in Shanghai. . . .

During my adolescent years the big change took place [the success of the Communist Revolution in China]. . . . We were all terrified, because we understood the people who were going to take over the whole country is going to be—well, the way we put it—like our enemies. This was in 1949. . . .

Well things began to change and we felt ropes tightening up around our necks. . . .

We just couldn't stay there. . . .

We went to Hong Kong [a British colony] to join my husband. He was doing pretty good. . . .

We stayed in Hong Kong a little over three years [and decided to come to the United States]. And my husband's brother here in this country [the United States] was saying, "If you want to come over to this country, we'll sponsor." He came as a student, twenty years ago. We came as immigrants in 1969. . . .

My son is in high school now. With him it was one big adjustment right after the other. He had to learn the different dialect in Hong Kong, and then he had to learn American here. I don't know how the guy went through it, but he never stopped behind in his class. I don't know how he did it. . . . He's always been a quiet boy. He just doesn't have that many friends. It does still worry me.

One of my son's biggest disappointments is that my daughter doesn't speak Chinese. Well, she was a year and a half when she came over, and she thought she was American all along. . . .

Last year, December, we became citizens. The doctor at the hospital where I work invited us over for a party. He surprised us by standing up and announcing it. He said, "Something very wonderful happened last week," and told everybody that we were citizens now. He gave us an American flag as a present, and everybody drank to us. It was very heartwarming.

PROGRAM 8

Moving North to Chicago

1900-1945

Curriculum Connection

This video program emphasizes the themes of urban development, migration from rural to urban areas, and the struggles of African Americans to overcome segregation and other forms of racial discrimination during the first half of the 20th century. These themes fit parts of secondary school U.S. history courses that deal with social change and race relations in an urban context.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Give reasons for the movement of African Americans from the South to the North during the first half of the 20th century
2. Identify at least three ways this movement changed the human characteristics of the city of Chicago
3. Assess the positive and negative consequences for African Americans of their move to Chicago

Geographic Theme

Movement: Humans Interacting on the Earth

In this program, the geographic theme of movement is used to help students understand the experiences of African Americans who migrated from the southern region of the United States to the northern region during the first half of the 20th century.

Key Ideas

1. Patterns are formed by the movement of people, ideas, and products.
2. Movements occur for a variety of reasons.
3. Movements involve linkage between origins and destinations.

Relationships between people in different places constitute the theme of movement. People travel, moving from one place to another. People rely on goods that come from beyond their own environment. And people in different places communicate with one another.

Migration is one type of human movement. It is a permanent move to a new location. In developing the theme of movement, it is useful to distinguish between forced migration and voluntary migration. While Africans who were brought to the United States in slavery were forced migrants, African Americans who moved from the rural South to the urban North in this century were voluntary migrants. They made their own decision to move.

Program Summary

The first permanent settler in 1779 at the location that became Chicago was a black man. But as the United States expanded westward in the 19th century and Chicago became a center of industry and trade, most of the workers in the city's booming steel mills, factories, and stockyards were not African Americans but immigrants from Europe. In 1900, more than 90 percent of all African Americans lived in the South under harsh discriminatory laws and segregated conditions. For them, justice, schools, and jobs were all scarce.

At the turn of the century, in what has been called the Great Migration, African Americans began moving from the rural South to the urban West and North. They usually arrived on crowded trains and without money, settling in poor, all-black neighborhoods. In Chicago, most of them were able to find jobs as factory workers, sales clerks, railroad porters, and stockyard laborers. U.S. entry into World War I in 1917 opened up thousands of new jobs, and even more eager workers moved north. Migration more than doubled Chicago's African American population during the war. Many all-white neighborhoods became all-black.

The postwar years brought increasing racial conflict, including a five-day riot in 1919 that left 38 persons dead. But Chicago still needed workers, and the migration continued. African Americans added many cultural features to the Chicago scene: churches, business and social clubs, gospel music, jazz, and the blues. The migration slowed during the 1930s' Great Depression but burgeoned again with the economic boom of World War II and continued for the next 30 years, until 1970. In all, more than seven million African Americans moved out of the South, hundreds of thousands of them to Chicago.

Before the Program

- Read this poem to students or have a student read it to the class. Tell students it was written in 1926 by the poet Langston Hughes, an African American who expressed the feelings of people uprooting themselves to seek a better life.

Bound No'th Blues

Goin' down de road, Lord,
Goin' down de road.
Down de road, Lord,
Way, way down de road.
Got to find some body
To help me carry this load.

National Archives

African Americans in the South, early 20th century.

Road's in front o' me,
Nothin' to do but walk.
Road's in front o' me,
Walk . . . and walk . . . and walk.
I'd like to meet a good friend
To come along an' talk.

Hates to be lonely,
Lawd, I hates to be sad.
Says I hates to be lonely,
Hates to be lonely an' sad,
But ever' friend you finds seems
Like they try to do you bad.

Road, road, road, O!
Road, road . . . road . . . road, road!
Road, road, road, O!
On de no'thern road.
These Mississippi towns ain't
Fit for a hoppin' toad.

Then ask students to discuss the meaning of this poem and speculate on how it applies to U.S. history during the first half of the 20th century. Ask students to consider the main idea of Hughes's poem. Ask this question: Why did many African Americans decide to move from the southern region of the United States to northern cities during the first half of the 20th century?

- Using a wall map of the United States or a map in a textbook, ask students to identify states from which African Americans moved to northern cities. Next, ask them to identify northern cities that were popular destinations of these migrants.
- Distribute copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the video

Chicago Historical Society

African Americans working in Chicago after migration.

program that students will view. You may also want to use it to preview key events of the program.

- Tell students they will view a video program about the movement of African Americans from the southern region of the United States to big cities in the northern region.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about one minute in length). Ask students to speculate on the question posed here by the host: "Why did Louis Travis and many other black Americans move from the South to northern cities?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "What hopes brought southern black Americans to the urban centers of the North and West? How did their decision to migrate change their lives? And how did it change Chicago?" Encourage students to draw upon information and examples from the program.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion at the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the video program in preparing their responses.

1. How was the movement of African Americans from the South to Chicago affected by the following persons or events?
   a. Industrial development. *(Many new jobs opened up in Chicago; migration increased.)*
   b. Labor recruiters. *(Offered free transportation north.)*
   c. World War I. *(More jobs became available; migration increased.)*
   d. The post-World War I economic boom. *(Migration increased.)*
   e. The Great Depression of the 1930s. *(Migration slowed.)*
   f. World War II. *(Migration increased.)*
2. How was this movement affected by differences in socioeconomic conditions in the North and South? *(North had more jobs, better living conditions that stimulated movement; South had Jim Crow laws, the boll weevil, poor schools that stimulated movement.)*
3. How did this movement change the human characteristics of Chicago? Identify at least three changes. *(Population increased greatly; some all-white neighborhoods became all-black; cultural aspects such as the music scene were enriched.)*
4. What were the positive consequences for African Americans who moved north to Chicago? *(Better jobs, better living conditions, better education.)* What were the negative consequences? *(Discrimination, race riots.)* Did the positive outweigh the negative for most African Americans who moved? Explain. *(Answers will vary.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign to students the follow-up activity, which appears as Handout B at the end of this lesson. It involves examination and interpretation of primary documents.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *To find work, escape discriminatory laws, get a better education.* (2) *Little or no money, crowded trains, white opposition.* (3) *They believed they would reap benefits—jobs at good wages and decent housing—*

that would outweigh the obstacles. (4) *The newspaper advertised benefits of migration, led movement to protect rights.* (5) *Southern agents tried to get African American workers to stay in South with little success; explanations will vary.* (6) *All expressed hope for better life; Travis saw that the hope was not always fulfilled. Students' opinions will vary.*

Suggested Reading

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Grant, Robert B. *The Black Man Comes to the City.* Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1972.

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Johnson, Daniel M., and Rex R. Campbell. *Black Migration in America: A Social Demographic History.* Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1981.

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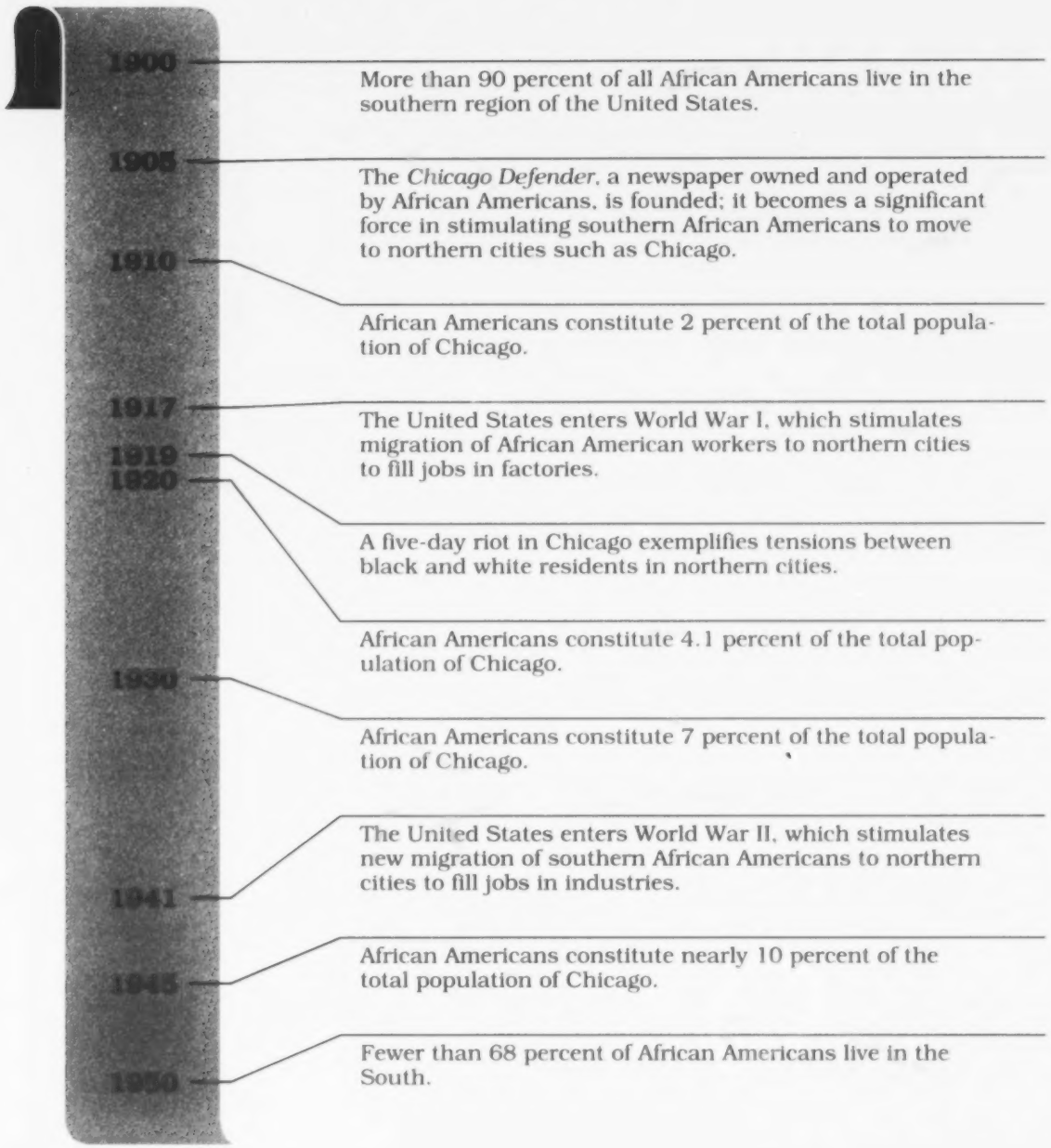
PROGRAM 8

Moving North to Chicago

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1900
More than 90 percent of all African Americans live in the southern region of the United States.
1905
The *Chicago Defender*, a newspaper owned and operated by African Americans, is founded; it becomes a significant force in stimulating southern African Americans to move to northern cities such as Chicago.
1910
African Americans constitute 2 percent of the total population of Chicago.
1917
The United States enters World War I, which stimulates migration of African American workers to northern cities to fill jobs in factories.
1919
1920
A five-day riot in Chicago exemplifies tensions between black and white residents in northern cities.
African Americans constitute 4.1 percent of the total population of Chicago.
1930
African Americans constitute 7 percent of the total population of Chicago.
The United States enters World War II, which stimulates new migration of southern African Americans to northern cities to fill jobs in industries.
1941
African Americans constitute nearly 10 percent of the total population of Chicago.
1945
Fewer than 68 percent of African Americans live in the South.
1950

PROGRAM 8

Moving North to Chicago

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Document

Examine and interpret the following set of primary documents taken from the *Chicago Defender*, a newspaper owned and published by African Americans. This newspaper, founded in 1905, claimed a circulation by 1917 of more than 100,000 copies, many of them in the southern states. Answer these questions, using information and ideas acquired from the documents as evidence to support or justify your answers.

1. Why did African Americans in the South want to migrate to cities in the North, such as Chicago?

2. What were some obstacles to the migration of these southern African Americans to the North?

3. What hopes did these African Americans express about how to overcome these obstacles?

4. How did the *Chicago Defender* encourage or help African Americans move north?

5. How did some southern whites react to the migration of African Americans from their region? Can you explain their reaction?

6. Compare the viewpoints expressed about the move north by African Americans in letters and editorials in the *Chicago Defender* (Documents 3 and 4) with views expressed by persons in the video program such as Dempsey Travis. What are the similarities in their views? Are there any differences? What are your opinions about the views expressed in Documents 3 and 4? Do you agree with the reasons given for migrating north?

PROGRAM 8

Moving North to Chicago

Document 1
News Report in the *Chicago Defender*, August 12, 1916

Atlanta, Georgia. So strong has the exodus of farm and skilled labor been since the war [beginning of World War I in 1914] that the southern whites have begun to see that their treatment for the Race man has brought about unsatisfied conditions and those who are trying to get away from the "Jim Crow" and segregated part of the country are leaving in large numbers owing to the shortage of white help in the north. One hundred and fifty left for the tobacco fields of Connecticut last week. The Baltimore & Ohio [railroad] took 200 and about 50 more are leaving for the steel mills in Indiana [in Gary and East Chicago]. . . .

Every clew to a job in the north is being taken up and families are preparing to leave on 12 hours notice. "Better living conditions for my children" is the watchword in every household.

Document 2
News Report in the *Chicago Defender*, August 19, 1916

Savannah, Georgia. During the past three weeks the agents of the Pennsylvania railroad have been sending thousands of laborers north to work on the railroad and in the factories. Train after train has been sent from Jacksonville, Fla., with as many as they could hold.

The officials of this city have been taken completely by surprise to find so many that are willing and ready to leave the south. Two and three trains have been leaving here with from ten to twelve coaches each. Two labor agents have been arrested for sending labor out of Georgia, but when the case came to trial the labor agents came way out ahead and resumed their work. The laborers lined up on West Broad and Margaret streets. When the labor agent passed he told them where to catch the train.

The men began to fill the West End car, going out to Central junction, which is four miles out of the city limits. The cars were crowded all day and the streets were lined with people. . . .

The white people have begun to sit up and take notice. They have tried every way to stop the exodus but have failed.

Document 3
Editorial in the *Chicago Defender*, February 10, 1917

The *Defender* invites all to come north. Plenty of room for the good, sober, industrious man. Plenty of work. For those who will not work, the jails will take care of you. When you have served your 90 days at hard labor you will then have learned how to work. Anywhere in God's country is far better than the South-

80

land. . . . Don't let the crackers fool you. Come join the ranks of the free. Cast the yoke from around your neck. See the light. When you have crossed the Ohio river breathe the fresh air and say, "Why didn't I come before?"

Document 4
Letters to the *Chicago Defender*

April 21, 1917
Mobile, Alabama
Dear Sirs:

We have a club of 108 good men wants work we are willing to go north or west but we are not able to pay rail road fare now if you can help us get work and get to it please answer at once. Hope to hear from you.

April 25, 1917
Pensacola, Florida
Dear Sir:

Having read in the "Chicago Defender" [that you] are helping the negroes of the south to secure employment I am writing you this note asking you to please put me & my friend in touch with some firm that are employing men. Please do what you can for us.

April 29, 1917
Atlanta, Georgia
Sir:

I am a young man 25 years of age. I desire to get in some place where I can earn more for my labor than I do now, which is $1.25 per day. . . . I am willing to do anything for better wages. . . . I would like if you knows if there is an auto school any where [that] colored men can go to and learn the automobile industry to give me their address.

PROGRAM 9

New Deal for the Dust Bowl

1931-1945

Curriculum Connection

The Great Depression and New Deal policies of the federal government are important topics in secondary school U.S. history courses. This video program, with its focus on depression-era problems of Dust Bowl farmers, complements and enriches standard textbook chapters on the first two terms of the Franklin D. Roosevelt presidency, which formulated New Deal programs to assist Great Plains farmers, among others.

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Explain how environmental conditions and human actions created the Dust Bowl
2. Describe how the Dust Bowl affected people of the Great Plains
3. Describe federal government programs of the New Deal era that were designed to ameliorate or overcome problems of the Dust Bowl and to prevent these problems in the future

Geographic Theme

Relationships within Places: Humans and Environments

In this program, the geographic theme of human/environment relationships is used to examine conditions on the Great Plains before, during, and after the Dust Bowl disaster of the 1930s.

Key Ideas

1. People interact with the environment to obtain a variety of resources that meet their needs.
2. People perceive the environment in different ways.
3. People modify the environment in different ways.

People significantly modify the natural environment, usually in an effort to meet their needs. These modifications reflect cultural values, economic and political circumstances, and technological abilities. The Dust Bowl is a story of humans modifying the southern Great Plains using farming techniques more appropriate for the eastern part of the country and the government's actions to alleviate the disastrous conditions that resulted.

Program Summary

In the 1930s a vast area of fertile farmland in the center of the United States, the Great Plains, turned into a Dust Bowl, hit by storms of wind and dry earth. The rich soil that had been producing bumper crops of wheat and corn took to the air in huge clouds of choking dust. Worst affected was a five-state region of northern Texas, northeastern New Mexico, southeastern Colorado, southwestern Kansas, and the Oklahoma Panhandle. This area, which even in normal times experiences hot summers with little rain, was in a major drought period with hardly any rain at all.

Farming on a large scale had begun in this region only after 1910, when powered machinery made it possible for one farmer to work a huge area of land. Through the 1920s the amount of land under cultivation increased dra-

matically. The region was experiencing a wet period, which was ideal for "dry farming" techniques that depended on ground moisture. But in this area a dry period always follows a wet period, and in the 1930s the soil became drier and drier, crops died off, the grass withered, farming became impossible, and millions of acres of parched earth began blowing away. With no government assistance programs available, farm families were threatened with homelessness and starvation. Half a million people were forced off the Great Plains; many of them headed for the rich farmlands of California and Washington.

Finally the federal government, under the New Deal administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, put together a number of programs to relieve the Dust Bowl conditions as well as the overall effects of the Great Depression. Dust Bowl farmers who remained on the land received immediate relief– money to buy fuel, feed for livestock, and food and clothing for their families. The Soil Conservation Service devised a plan to control the dust storms with new and experimental farming methods. Farmers learned how to plow the land so as to trap much-needed moisture. The Forest Service planted millions of trees to break the force of the winds. By 1939 the worst was over, and the region again began to prosper. Though drought periods have returned since then, the Dust Bowl conditions have not.

Before the Program

- Read this verse to students or have a student read it to the class. Tell students it was written and set to music by an American folk musician, Woody Guthrie, who expressed the feelings of the "common man" in his music.

> On the 14th day of April 1935 there struck
> The worst of dust storms
> That ever filled the sky.
>
> From Oklahoma City,
> To the Arizona line,
> Dakota and Nebraska
> To the lazy Rio Grande.
>
> The storm took place at sundown,
> It lasted through the night.
> When we looked out next morning,
> We saw a terrible sight.
>
> It covered up our fences,
> It covered up our barns,
> It covered up our tractors
> In this wild and dusty storm.©

  Then ask students to consider the lyric's meaning and how it applies to U.S. history during the 1930s. Tell students that asking and answering geographic questions can help structure one's consideration of an historical event.

  The most basic geographic question is *"Where?"* Ask students: Where in the United States did the Dust Bowl occur? Have them use the song lyric and a wall map of the United States or a map in a textbook to answer this question.

  Indicate that a second basic question is *"Why there?"* Have students speculate about the causes of the Dust Bowl. Ask them: Why did the dust storms occur there, on the southern Great Plains?

- Distribute copies of the timeline for this lesson, which appears as Handout A at the end of the lesson. Use it to establish the historical period for the program that students will view. You may also want to use it to preview key events of the program.
- Inform students they will view a video program that will answer the two basic geographic questions already discussed and other questions about the Dust Bowl of the Great Plains region during the 1930s.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about two minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the questions posed here by the host: "Why did this rich, fertile soil, which had been producing bumper crops of wheat and corn, take to the air in huge clouds of choking dust? What part did the natural environment have in this tragedy? What part did people play in causing it?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their responses against information presented in the remainder of the program.

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "How should we relate to our natural environment? What lessons do we learn from the experience of the farmers before, during, and after the Dust Bowl era?" Encourage students to draw upon information and examples from the program.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion at the next class meeting. Ask them to reflect on the video program in preparing their responses.

1. What did each of these factors have to do with creation of the Dust Bowl?
   a. Climate. *(Fierce, dry winds and hot summers with little rain on the Great Plains caused dust storms.)*

Library of Congress

A dust storm in the Dust Bowl, Oklahoma, 1936.

b. Rainfall. *(Very little rainfall led to erosion of soil.)*

c. Farming methods. *(Dry farming technique worked only when there was adequate rainfall.)*

2. What were the most important causes of the Dust Bowl– characteristics of the natural environment or the interactions of humans with the natural environment? Explain. *(Both factors were necessary causes, but human interactions compounded the problem.)*

3. How did the Dust Bowl conditions affect the lives of people in the Great Plains region? *(Many people had to abandon their farms, leave everything, and move elsewhere.)*

4. What New Deal actions were taken by the federal government to help farmers overcome problems of the Dust Bowl? *(Government provided immediate relief and subsidies, took aerial soil surveys, devised ways to protect soil, educated farmers to new agricultural methods, set up experimental farms, used teams of county agents to work with farmers, planted trees as windbreaks, took grasslands out of cultivation.)*

5. When did prosperity return to the farmers of the Great Plains region? Why? *(Prosperity returned in the late 1930s as a result of government programs and the ending of drought conditions.)*

U.S. Department of Agriculture

The Great Plains under scientific cultivation after the Dust Bowl years.

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign to students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. They involve examination and interpretation of data in a timeline and primary documents.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *1931, 1932.* (2) *1935, 1937.* (3) *1933, 1935, 1937.* (4) *1933, 1935, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940.* (5) *Answers will vary.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Drought, farmers' failure to let land lie fallow.* (2) *Let land lie fallow; till with appropriate conservation methods.* (3) *Improvements spotty; much depended on continued rain.* (4) *Following scientific agricultural methods helped ensure farmers' survival through droughts of 1950s and 1970s.*

Suggested Reading

Bonnifield, Paul. *The Dust Bowl.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1979.

Hurt, R. Douglas. *The Dust Bowl: An Agricultural and Social History.* Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1984.

Malone, Michael P., and Richard W. Etulain. *The American West: A Twentieth-Century History,* pp. 87-119. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1989.

Kraenzel, Carl Frederick. *The Great Plains in Transition.* Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1969.

Low, Ann Marie. *Dust Bowl Diary.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1984.

Lowitt, Richard. *The New Deal and the West.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984.

Stein, Walter J. *California and the Dust Bowl Migration.* Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1973.

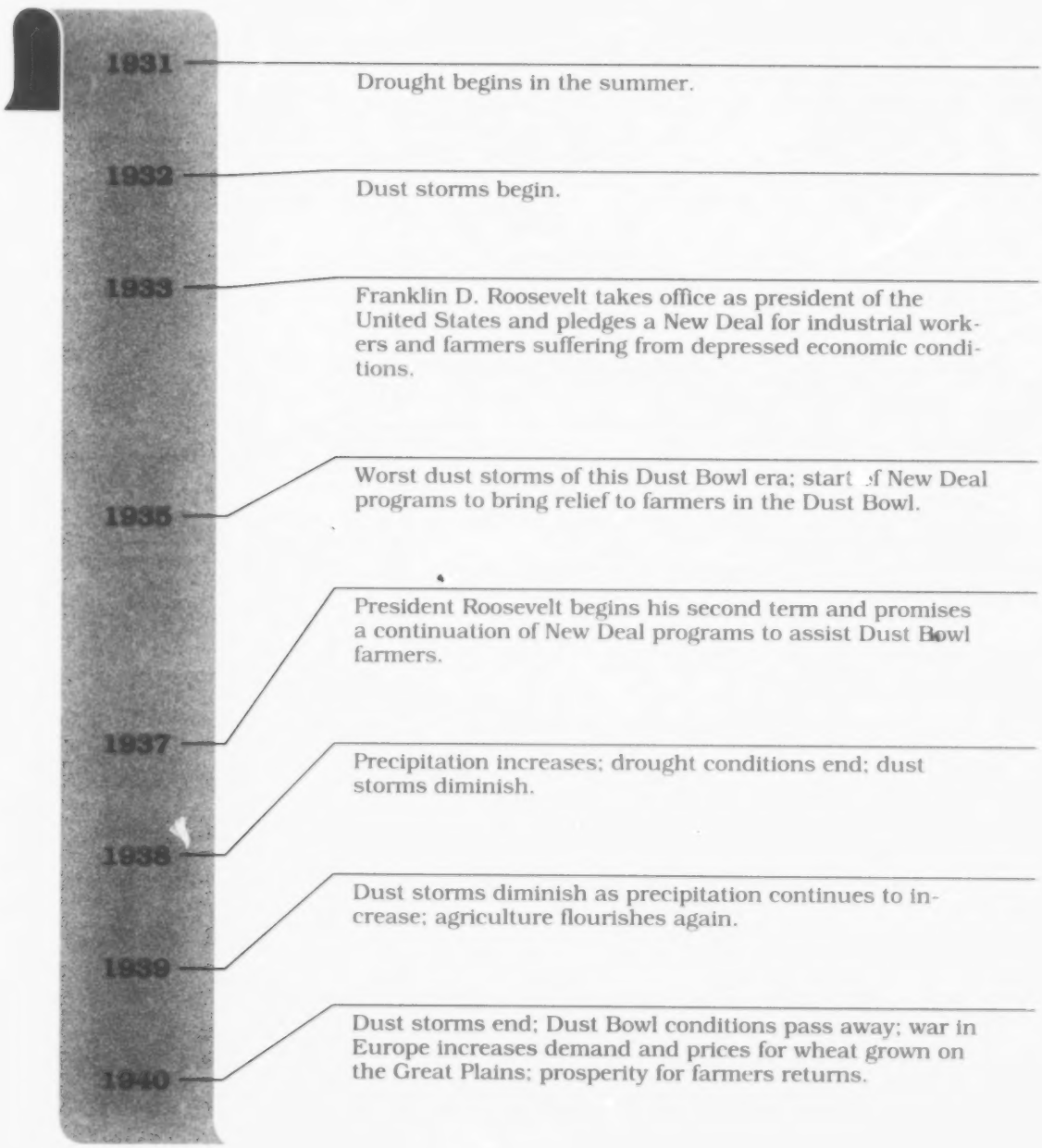
Worster, Donald. *Dust Bowl.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1979.

PROGRAM 9

New Deal for the Dust Bowl

HANDOUT A

Timeline


1931
Drought begins in the summer.
1932
Dust storms begin.
1933
Franklin D. Roosevelt takes office as president of the United States and pledges a New Deal for industrial workers and farmers suffering from depressed economic conditions.
1935
Worst dust storms of this Dust Bowl era; start of New Deal programs to bring relief to farmers in the Dust Bowl.
1937
President Roosevelt begins his second term and promises a continuation of New Deal programs to assist Dust Bowl farmers.
1938
Precipitation increases; drought conditions end; dust storms diminish.
1939
Dust storms diminish as precipitation continues to increase; agriculture flourishes again.
1940
Dust storms end; Dust Bowl conditions pass away; war in Europe increases demand and prices for wheat grown on the Great Plains; prosperity for farmers returns.

HANDOUT B

PROGRAM 9

New Deal for the Dust Bowl

Interpreting a Timeline

Examine the timeline for this program (Handout A). Then answer the following questions about the data in the timeline.

1. What items in the timeline pertain to causes of the Dust Bowl?

2. What items in the timeline pertain to consequences of the Dust Bowl?

3. What items in the timeline pertain to actions taken to overcome Dust Bowl problems?

4. What items in the timeline pertain to reasons for the end of the Dust Bowl?

5. What are three events in U.S. history that should be added to this timeline? Indicate exactly where these three events would fit into this timeline. Why should these events be added to this timeline?

PROGRAM 9

New Deal for the Dust Bowl

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine the primary documents taken from the travel dispatches of a famous journalist, Ernie Pyle, whose articles were printed in newspapers throughout the United States. Document 1 is a report about effects of the Dust Bowl on people living in western Kansas in June 1936. Document 2, written in May 1939, reports about Dust Bowl conditions in western Kansas and Oklahoma. Then answer the following questions about the two documents, using information and ideas from the documents as evidence to support or justify your answers.

1. What reasons for the creation of the Dust Bowl were reported by Ernie Pyle?

2. What opinions about how the Dust Bowl problems could be overcome were reported by Pyle?

3. What were Pyle's judgments about improvements in the Dust Bowl region from 1936 to 1939?

4. What opinions about the future of the Dust Bowl region can you derive from Pyle's reports? To what extent did these opinions conform to developments in the region from the 1940s until today?

PROGRAM 9

New Deal for the Dust Bowl

Document 1

Ernie Pyle's Report on the Dust Bowl, June 8, 1936

. . . I asked my friend in Garden City [Kansas] to tell me all about the dust storms—what caused them, and what was being done about it, and so on. This is what he told me:

This country has always been cattle-grazing country. There has never been much heavy vegetation: just short grass. But during and after the war [World War I], people found they could make more money raising wheat than raising cattle. They started farming. Money came easily. It was nothing for a man to buy a section of land and pay for it with just one wheat crop. It was a utopia. A few months' hard work, and your year's revenue was in hand. People didn't put much back into the land, or till for the future.

Then, five years ago, came the drought. Most of the farmers were broke. There had been a bumper crop. As far as you could see across these vast prairies, every inch of land was covered with billowing wheat. The market was flooded. The price fell to nothing. The crop that year, even though it was fine, would hardly pay for itself.

With no money in hand, the farmers couldn't afford to let their land lie fallow; they couldn't afford to make the temporary sacrifice that would have insured the future. They couldn't afford to have the doctor now, even though it would have been cheaper in the long run. They continued to plow and plant. There was no rain. The wind blew. The raw ground dried, and started to blow.

My friend told how dust storms are like a disease. They infect other land. The dust settles over an adjoining field, smothers out the vegetation; the blowing dust drills into it, gets a hold, digs in, bares a spot to the wind, and it's all over. Another field has been added to the desolation.

Hundreds of thousands of acres have been completely abandoned. The people have moved to neighboring towns and tried to get day work. Some have found farms to rent outside the dust region.

And what is to become of this country? I don't know. The experts are working on it. They are giving advice, but the advice is mighty hard to follow when you're broke. The experts do say this: that if this land were left fallow for a few years, or if it were tilled with method [that is, with appropriate conservation methods], the country could be restored.

Some people say it is gone forever, that the rich topsoil is all blown away. Others say nonsense, that topsoil extends down thirty feet. Some crops won't grow on this land now, certainly, but others will. The experts say a farmer can terrace land against wind erosion, just as he can against water erosion—you can plow up the ridges, at right angles to the prevailing winds, and these ridges will catch the dust, and form a dam, and keep the soil in place. They have done it in many places.

But the average farmer, even though he may be in accord with the scientific ways of restoring the land, still feels that it is just the plain old farm question of weather, and that as soon as the wind stops blowing and we get back to normal rains, everything will be all right.

Document 2

Ernie Pyle Revisits the Dust Bowl, May 3, 1939

The Dust Bowl is better—in spots. Today when we drove through the dust country a high wind was blowing. It roared against the side of the car until you could hardly talk. Yet there wasn't a speck of dust. Water was standing in the roadside ditches. The land was moist from last night's rain. The Dust Bowl has had an abundance of rain this spring. If it keeps up, there will be a crop this year. *If* it keeps up. . . .

It doesn't take long for the land to dry and the earth to start rolling through the air. Take last night, for example, just before the rain. The wind whippped up to sixty miles an hour. A California family, in a brand-new Buick, got caught in the storm.

They were badly frightened. They had never seen a dust storm before. They didn't know what was happening to them. They came plowing through. And when they drove into a garage here, their windows were mottled by the sand, and there wasn't any paint left on their brand-new Buick. That's what a little drying sunshine, and a little puff of wind can do to the Dust Bowl.

Around Garden City [Kansas] things look infinitely better than they did when we came through three years ago. At that time the country was like a graveyard—denuded, gray, almost vulgar in its pitiful nakedness. . . .

But now, around Garden City you see green fields of wheat and alfalfa. Dozens of herds of nice-looking cattle graze in these fields. There is a prosperous look. . . .

PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

1945-1991

Curriculum Connection

This video program describes the Cold War atmosphere following World War II and the foreign policy responses of the United States and its allies to the Soviet Union and its allies. Thus it fits the parts of standard secondary school U.S. history textbooks that treat the postwar conflicts and the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

Objectives

After viewing this program and participating in the accompanying activities, students will be able to

1. Explain how international political events following World War II led to the Cold War and the formation of NATO
2. Describe the actions of President Harry S. Truman and his adviser, George F. Kennan, in the formation of NATO as an instrument of United States foreign policy
3. Describe the effect of NATO on international relations in Europe from the 1950s to the 1990s
4. Evaluate NATO's contribution to the achievement of U.S. foreign policy objectives
5. Describe the unifying characteristics and common interests of the countries that formed NATO

Geographic Theme

Regions: How They Form and Change

In this program, the geographic theme of regions is used to describe and explain the origin of NATO and its counterpart, the Warsaw Pact.

Key Ideas

1. Regions are a way to organize information.
2. A region has common characteristics.
3. Regions provide a context for studying events.

A region is a means for examining, defining, describing, explaining, and analyzing the human and physical environment. In 1946, former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, in talking about the Soviet threat, saw Europe divided into two distinct regions, one under Soviet influence, the other under Western influence. He said the two regions were divided by a boundary, an "iron curtain."

This regional distinction served as the context within which events were played out in Europe for more than 40 years. It led to the formation of two regional military alliances, NATO and the Warsaw Pact. In addition, the West adopted a "containment" policy to prevent any westward movement of the boundary between the regions.

Program Summary

The United States, the Soviet Union, and their allies were victorious in World War II. But celebration soon turned into mutual fear and suspicion as the Soviets seized land and gained control over one East European country after the

other. In early 1946, only months after the war's end, former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill made his famous speech lamenting that "an iron curtain has descended across the Continent" of Europe due to Soviet expansion. U.S. President Harry Truman decided he must act. A respected expert on Soviet affairs, George F. Kennan, recommended a policy of "long-term, patient, but firm and vigilant containment of Russian expansionist tendencies."

Thus began the Cold War. In 1947 Truman asked Congress for $400 million to help Greece and Turkey stave off communism. The United States also launched a $17-billion program of economic aid to Western Europe called the Marshall Plan that soon brought those countries out of a depression. When the Western allies sought to reunite the defeated and divided Germany, the Soviet Union refused, fearing it might suffer again at the hands of a strong Germany. In June 1949 the Soviets set up a blockade of roads and railways into West Berlin, hoping the people of the city, cut off from food and fuel, would fall under Soviet control. But the Western allies began a massive airlift of supplies, foiling the Soviet strategy.

In April 1949, 12 nations of North America and Western Europe, including the United States, signed the North Atlantic Treaty, agreeing to come to one another's aid in case of military attack. Despite such early shocks as the fall of China to communism, the Soviet development of nuclear weapons, and the Korean War, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) prospered and expanded. To counter it, the Soviet Union formed its European allies into a military organization called the Warsaw Pact. For decades strong military forces of East and West stood glaring at each other across the iron curtain. But a shooting war was avoided; Kennan's and Truman's policy of containment worked. By 1991 the Soviet Union, weakened economically, had lost its dominance over Eastern Europe and the Warsaw Pact ceased to exist. But NATO remained a strong regional alliance of 16 countries with common values and defense needs.

U.S. troops, left, greet Soviet troops on bridge over the Elbe, May 1945.

Before the Program

- Read to students the following excerpts from a speech made by Winston Churchill in March 1946 at Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri.

> A shadow has fallen upon the scenes so lately lighted by the Allied victory. Nobody knows what Soviet Russia and its Communist international organization intends to do in the immediate future, or what are the limits, if any, to their expansive and proselytizing tendencies. . . .
>
> From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent. Behind that line lie all the capitals of the ancient states of central and eastern Europe . . . in what I must call the Soviet sphere, and all are subject in one form or another, not only to Soviet influence but to a very high and in some cases increasing measure of control from Moscow. . . .

Tell students who Churchill was and the heroic part he played during World War II as prime minister of Great Britain. Ask them to discuss the meaning of Churchill's "iron curtain" speech. Ask: What is the main point of Churchill's statement? Why did he make this statement at that time?

- After this brief, speculative discussion, turn to a wall map of Europe or a map in a textbook. Ask students to identify the line across Europe, from Stettin to Trieste, that Churchill referred to as an iron curtain.
- Tell students to consider the countries to the west and east of Churchill's line through the middle of Europe. Ask them to discuss speculatively the differences between the countries in the western region and those in the eastern region in the postwar period. Then turn to a world map and point to the United States and Canada. Ask students why these two countries have been linked historically to the countries of the Western European region.
- Distribute copies of the timeline for this program. Use it to establish the historical period and key events for the program that students will view.
- Tell students they will view a video program about the origins and development of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, or NATO, which countries of Western Europe and the North Atlantic region created to defend themselves against the perceived threat of aggression from the East.

During the Program

- If desired, the program may be paused at the end of the opening segment (about two minutes in length). Ask students to speculate on the question posed here by the host: "Why did the U.S., Canada, and countries in Western Europe form NATO after World War II?" After a brief discussion, tell students to check their responses against information presented in the remainder of the program. (Some teachers may prefer this activity to the Before the Program activities suggested above.)

After the Program

- Immediately following the viewing, initiate a brief, open-ended, preliminary discussion of the questions posed by the host at the end of the program: "Did NATO meet the regional needs and objectives for which it was founded? Do we still need NATO today?" Encourage students to draw upon information and examples from the program in responding to these questions.
- Then present to students the following set of questions, which may be used as the basis for a classroom discussion during the next class meeting. Ask students to reflect on the program in preparing their responses.

1. What is the purpose of NATO? What countries belong to it? *(NATO was formed as a defense alliance to protect its members against possible Soviet aggression; members are the United States, Canada, Iceland, Norway, the United Kingdom, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, France, Italy, Portugal, Germany, Spain, Greece, and Turkey.)*

2. What countries belonged to the Warsaw Pact? *(Soviet Union, Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, and Albania; Albania withdrew in 1968.)*
3. What did each of the following events have to do with the formation of NATO?
   a. Territorial expansion of the Soviet Union after World War II. *(West hoped NATO would stop Soviet expansion.)*
   b. Establishment of Communist governments in countries of East Europe. *(Gave Soviet Union control over the region; heightened threat to the West.)*
   c. Threat of Soviet domination of Greece and Turkey. *(Caused President Truman to state doctrine of containment.)*
   d. Berlin blockade. *(Helped convince Western allies to form NATO.)*
4. What did President Truman and his foreign policy adviser George F. Kennan have to do with the formation of NATO? *(They were its chief proponents and architects.)*
5. What were the unifying characteristics and common interests of the countries in the North Atlantic area that formed NATO? *(Common defense interests, common heritage, democratic governments.)*
6. Evaluate the performance of NATO. Was it a good idea when it was organized? Has it been a successful instrument of U.S. foreign policy? *(Answers will vary.)*
7. What should be the future of NATO? Is there still a need for it? *(Answers will vary.)*

Follow-up Activities

Teachers may wish to assign students one or both follow-up activities, which appear as Handouts B and C at the end of this lesson. They involve examining and interpreting information in a table and a document.

Answers to Handout B: (1) *NATO.* (2) *NATO.* (3) *Warsaw Pact.* (4) *Warsaw Pact.* (5) *Appeared to give advantage to Warsaw Pact.* (6) *Answers will vary.*

Answers to Handout C: (1) *Collective defense.* (2) *Self-help and mutual aid against armed attack.* (3) *Collective defense and economic collaboration were seen as beneficial for the peace and security of the whole North Atlantic region.* (4) *Preamble and Articles 1-5.* (5) *Yes; the region was considered united on principles and on economic and defense needs.* (6) *Answers will vary.*

Suggested Reading

Carpenter, Ted Galen, editor. *Is NATO Obsolete?* Washington, D.C.: Cato Institute, 1990.

Chaliand, Gerard, and Jean-Pierre Rageau. *Strategic Atlas: A Comparative Geopolitics of the World's Powers.* New York: Harper & Row, 1985.

Gaddis, John Lewis. *The Long Peace: Inquiries into the History of the Cold War.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1987.

Godson, Joseph, editor. *Thirty-five Years of NATO.* New York: Dodd, Mead, 1984.

Mayers, David. *George Kennan and the Dilemmas of U.S. Foreign Policy.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.

Paterson, Thomas G. *Meeting the Communist Threat: Truman to Reagan.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.

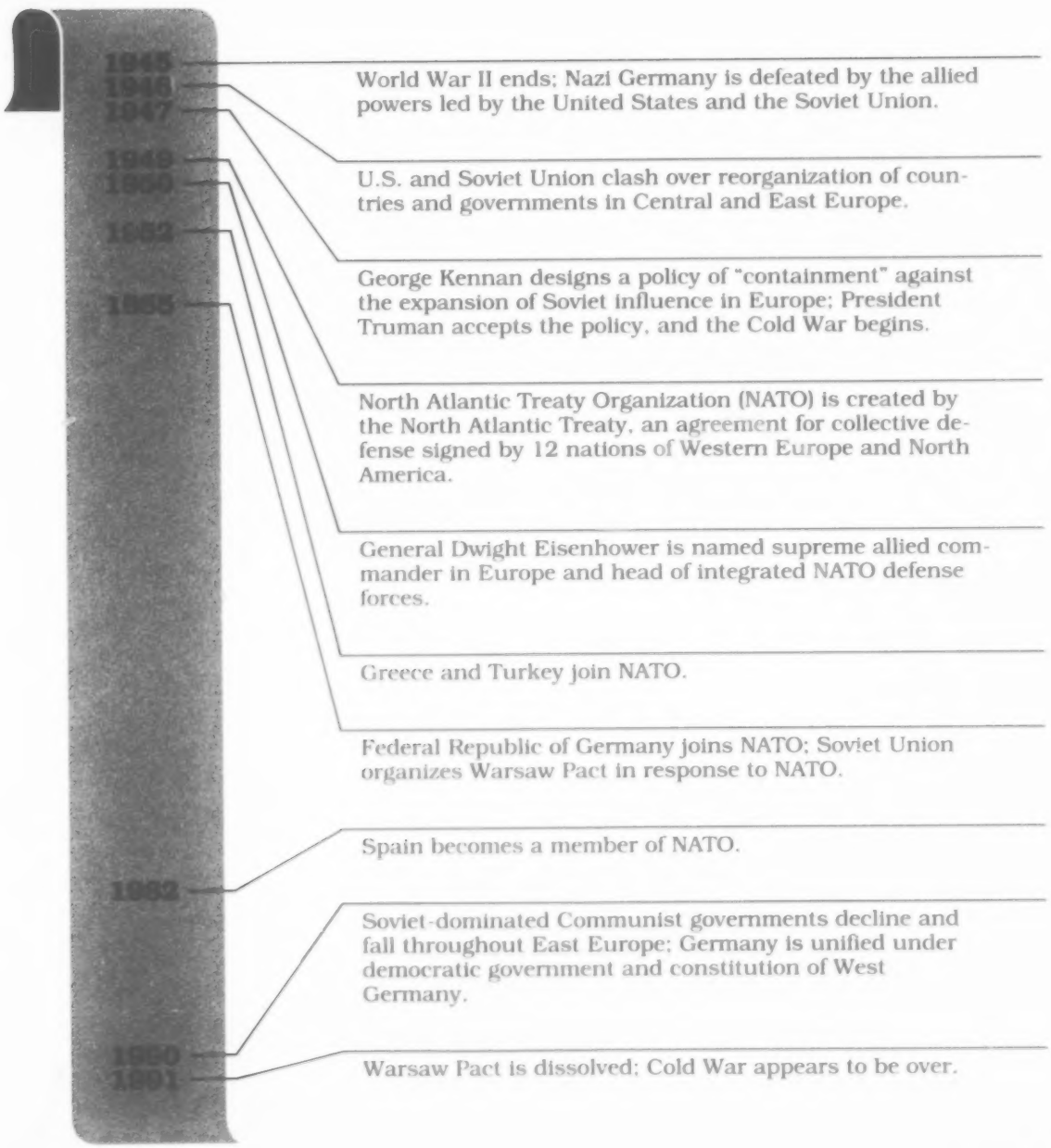
Sharnik, John. *Inside the Cold War: An Oral History.* New York: Arbor House, 1987.

HANDOUT A

PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

Timeline


1945
1946
1947
1948
1949
1950
1952
1955
1982
1990
1991
World War II ends; Nazi Germany is defeated by the allied powers led by the United States and the Soviet Union.
U.S. and Soviet Union clash over reorganization of countries and governments in Central and East Europe.
George Kennan designs a policy of "containment" against the expansion of Soviet influence in Europe; President Truman accepts the policy, and the Cold War begins.
North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) is created by the North Atlantic Treaty, an agreement for collective defense signed by 12 nations of Western Europe and North America.
General Dwight Eisenhower is named supreme allied commander in Europe and head of integrated NATO defense forces.
Greece and Turkey join NATO.
Federal Republic of Germany joins NATO; Soviet Union organizes Warsaw Pact in response to NATO.
Spain becomes a member of NATO.
Soviet-dominated Communist governments decline and fall throughout East Europe; Germany is unified under democratic government and constitution of West Germany.
Warsaw Pact is dissolved; Cold War appears to be over.

PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

HANDOUT B

Interpreting a Table

NATO and Warsaw Pact: Indicators of Power, 1984

Indicator	NATO	Warsaw Pact
Population	634,000,000	387,000,000
Gross national product in dollars per capita	$10,729	$7,396
Military forces stationed in Europe	2,600,000	4,000,000
Tanks in Europe	13,470	26,900
Aircraft in Europe	2,990	7,430
Intercontinental missiles with nuclear warheads	1,040*	1,398**

Figures from *NATO and the Warsaw Pact: Force Comparisons* (NATO Information Service, Brussels, 1984) and *World Military Expenditures and Arms Transfers* (U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency).

*United States and United Kingdom.

** Soviet Union.

Examine the information presented in the table, then answer these questions.

1. Which regional alliance had the advantage in number of persons available for military service?

2. Which regional alliance had the stronger economic system in 1984?

3. Which regional alliance had more military hardware available in Europe in 1984?

4. On balance, which military alliance seemed to have the advantage in 1984?

5. What role did nuclear weapons play in the military balance of power?

The Origin and Development of NATO

6. Speculate on the relationship between economic advantage and military power.

Now write a paragraph summarizing the information you obtained from the table. To write a summary paragraph:

- Begin by *writing a topic sentence* that tells what the whole paragraph is about.
- Next, *organize the information obtained from the map into sentences*. Use them to support or expand upon the topic sentence.

PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

HANDOUT C

Interpreting a Document

Examine this primary document, part of the North Atlantic Treaty (taken from the records of the 81st Congress of the United States). Then answer these questions, using information and ideas in the document as evidence to support or justify your answers.

1. What was the main objective of the North Atlantic Treaty?

2. How did the signatory countries intend to achieve this objective?

3. How do the Preamble and Article 2 exemplify the geographic theme of regions? Explain.

4. Which parts of the document include statements about cooperation and mutual benefits of signatory countries?

5. Can the idea of regions be used to explain why these statements were included in the document?

6. Did the signatory countries achieve the objectives and enjoy the benefits they sought through this treaty?

PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

DOCUMENT

The North Atlantic Treaty
Signed April 4, 1949

The Parties to this Treaty reaffirm their faith in the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations and their desire to live in peace with all peoples and all governments.

They are determined to safeguard the freedom, common heritage and civilization of their peoples, founded on the principles of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law.

They seek to promote stability and well-being in the North Atlantic area.

They are resolved to unite their efforts for collective defense and for the preservation of peace and security.

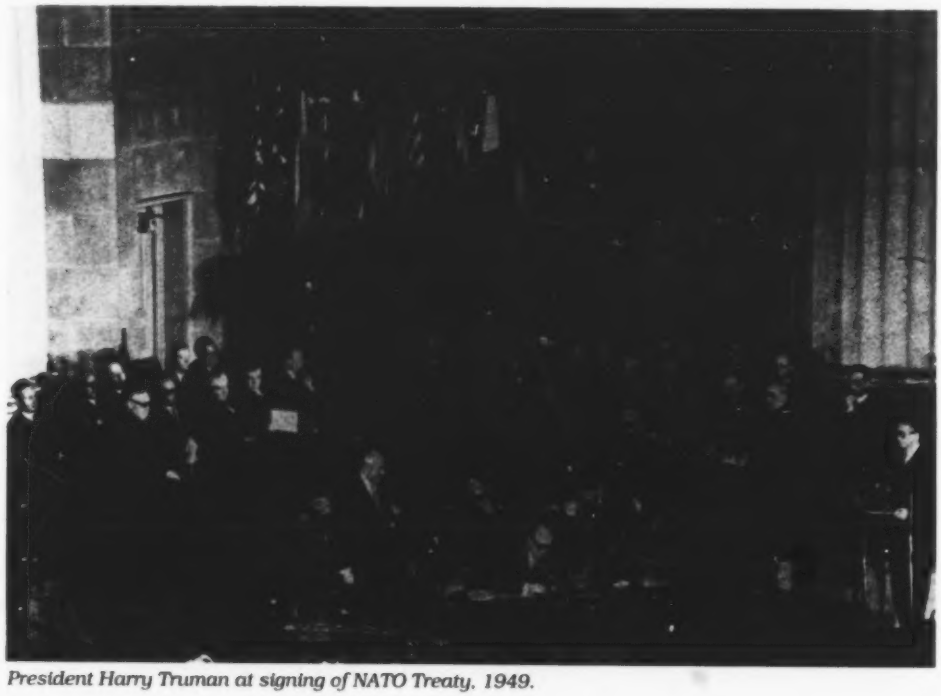
They therefore agree to this North Atlantic Treaty:

Article 1. The Parties undertake, as set forth in the Charter of the United Nations, to settle any international disputes in which they may be involved by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered, and to refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force in any manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations.

Article 2. The Parties will contribute toward the further development of peaceful and friendly international relations by strengthening their free institutions, by bringing about a better understanding of the principles upon which these institutions are founded, and by promoting conditions of stability and well-being. They will seek to eliminate conflict in their international economic policies and will encourage economic collaboration between any or all of them.

Article 3. In order more effectively to achieve the objectives of this Treaty, the Parties, separately and jointly, by means of continuous and effective self-help and mutual aid, will maintain and develop their individual and collective capacity to resist armed attack.

Article 4. The Parties will consult together whenever, in the opinion of any of them, the territorial integrity, political independence or security of any of the Parties is threatened.



President Harry Truman at signing of NATO Treaty, 1949.

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PROGRAM 10

The Origin and Development of NATO

DOCUMENT (continued)

Article 5. The Parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all; and consequently they agree that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defense recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the Party or Parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.

• • •

Article 8. Each Party declares that none of the international engagements now in force between it and any other of the Parties or any third state is in conflict with the provisions of this Treaty, and undertakes not to enter into any international engagement in conflict with this Treaty.

Article 9. The Parties hereby establish a council, on which each of them shall be represented, to consider matters concerning the implementation of this Treaty. The council shall be so organized as to be able to meet promptly at any time. The council shall set up such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary; in particular it shall establish immediately a defense committee which shall recommend measures for the implementation of Articles 3 and 5.

Article 10. The Parties may, by unanimous agreement, invite any other European state in a position to further the principles of this Treaty and to contribute to the security of the North Atlantic area to accede to this Treaty. . . .

Article 11. . . . The Treaty shall enter into force between the states which have ratified it as soon as the ratifications of the majority of the signatories, including the ratifications of Belgium, Canada, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States, have been deposited and shall come into effect with respect to other states on the date of the deposit of their ratifications.

Article 12. After the Treaty has been in force for ten years, or at any time thereafter, the Parties shall, if any of them so requests, consult together for the purpose of reviewing the Treaty, having regard for the factors then affecting peace and security in the North Atlantic area, including the development of universal as well as regional arrangements under the Charter of the United Nations for the maintenance of international peace and security.

Article 13. After the Treaty has been in force for twenty years, any Party may cease to be a party one year after its notice of denunciation has been given to the Government of the United States of America, which will inform the Governments of the other Parties of the deposit of each notice of denunciation.

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☐ follow-up activities (e.g., interpreting primary documents)
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☐ timeline ☐ handouts
☐ follow-up activities (e.g., interpreting primary documents)
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Why?

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Return questionnaires to

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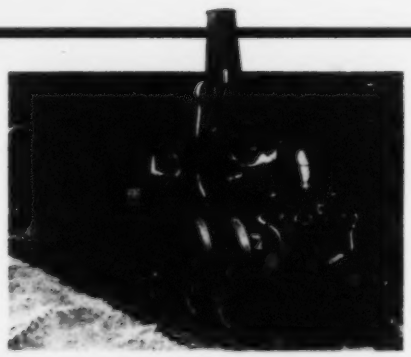

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